



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



35.

864.



PARALLEL
UNIVERSAL HISTORY:
BEING
AN OUTLINE
OF THE
HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY
OF
THE WORLD.



PARALLEL
UNIVERSAL HISTORY:

BEING

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY OF THE
WORLD.

DIVIDED INTO PERIODS



Hoc illud est præcipue in cognitione rerum salubre ac frugiferum,—omnis te exempli documenta in illustri posita monumento intueri; inde tibi tueque reipublice, quod imitere, capias; inde fœdum incepta, fœdum exitu, quod vites.—LIV.

Who writes a history, his principal aim should be truth, and to relate especially the extraordinary both of good and ill. Of good, that men, taken with the honour done them in story, may be encouraged to perform the like: of ill, that when men see the infamy that they are branded with, they may leap from all that should make them so stigmatized.

OWEN FELLTHAM.

LONDON:

WHITTAKER & CO., AVE-MARIA LANE.

1838.

864.

WHITING, BEAUFORT HOUSE, STRAND.



DEDICATION.

TO

THE HONOURABLE SIR JAMES ALLAN PARK,
D.C.L. AND F.A.S.

ONE OF THE

JUDGES OF HER MAJESTY'S COURT OF COMMON PLEAS,

AND

PRESIDENT OF THE MAGDALEN CHARITY,

&c. &c. &c.

MY DEAR SIR,

IN my desire to select you as the patron of a book intended in great measure for **THE YOUNG**, I am well satisfied that all who have had the happiness of a long acquaintance with you will both acquit me of a design to flatter you, and readily approve my choice.

It has ever been your generous and pious practice to aid with your purse and valuable counsel unfriended and deserving Youth; and there are many in the various walks of life, who are indebted to you not only for their worldly prosperity, but even for their virtue.

In a work professing, as this does, to touch upon every topic of civil and ecclesiastical history, no name can more appropriately stand at its head than that of him, whose patriotic labours to restore to her pristine independence and utility the truly apostolic Episcopal Church of Scotland were unceasing, and have ultimately been crowned with full success.

Of a like high, and yet more sacred order, have been your exertions to promote the interests of the Magdalen Charity. That purity of life which has marked your private capacity, and that incorruptible integrity of principle which has distinguished your public one, have eminently qualified you for your dignified sway over so godlike an Institution: and the great good you have effected therein has been registered by a Hand which never records in vain.

Permit me to close this address with my most sincere wishes that you may long continue an ornament to learning, religion, and your family, and a blessing to your country and your friends; and allow me to subscribe myself,

Dear Sir,

Your most obliged and

Most humble Servant,

PHILIP PRINCE.

ELMS, MITCHAM, SEPTEMBER 1, 1838.

PREFACE.

A **VERY** few remarks will explain the intentions of the Author in bringing before the Public a new compendium of Universal History and Biography.

To those engaged in the instruction of Youth, the value of a history of the world, arranged in the simple order of time, both sufficiently concise and explanatory, and judiciously divided into periods, will be readily acknowledged.

The labour of the Author, therefore, has been to comprise such a history in a single volume. Though classical events have, on that account, been necessarily abbreviated, it will be found, on placing the book in the pupil's hands, that few transactions and Characters of Greece and Rome have been left without mention: certainly no important fact or name has been omitted.

Where the place of truth, in early records, has been occupied by fable, the fable, rather than leave a blank, has been suffered to remain. It is allowed, on all sides, that such narratives were rather corrupted facts than entire fictions; and they have become too legalized by the prevailing system of basing education on Greek and Latin, to allow of their total exclusion.

Intelligence has been gleaned from all sources believed to be authentic. History is, or ought to be, a true relation. There can therefore be nothing original in a work which aims at registering events with the finger of truth, if indeed we except opinions upon those events. Such opinions as have been offered in this book must be regarded, not as resulting from the author's wish to dogmatize, but from his sincere desire to instil sober sentiments into the youthful mind.

The Biography has been selected to afford the best view of the progress of history and science, to guide the reader in the choice of authors, and, what is of most importance, to point out the conduct of the good for imitation, and that of the bad for censure and aversion.

There are no deviations in the work from the usual course of historians which need be noticed, beyond the introduction of the reign of Matilda, as independent of that of Stephen, and the carrying on of the Middle Ages to the death of the third Richard. The great change in the habits and language of our country effected by printing, began not to display itself until (strictly speaking) the reign of the eighth Henry: and before that period, both humane letters and physical science were at a sufficiently low point in England, to warrant the extension of the Middle Ages of British History to the accession of the Tudor family. The reign of Matilda is introduced with as fair reason as that of Edward V.; since, although might was too often prevalent over right in the early periods, the princess in question was not only the undoubted heiress of the crown, but

was put in legal possession of it by the usual forms. While the French nation place Louis XVII. in their list of sovereigns, *hommage aux dames* alone, swayed as the British sceptre now is by a female hand, should be sufficient excuse for our insertion of Matilda's name in the list of British monarchs.

Lastly, every book attempting to crowd within its limits the events of all time, must necessarily afford but a skeleton of Universal History. That skeleton, however, the diligent scholar may beneficially exercise himself in filling up; and it is gratifying to the author to state that, after using the substance of his work during a course of years, many of his pupils have passed, on entering various Public Schools, an examination in History so creditable, as to bring a distinct acknowledgment to him of the fact from more than the parents of the boys. That approbation has been his principal incentive to publish.

CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX.

Ancient History.

PERIOD I. <i>From the Creation to Moses.</i> 4004 TO 1491 B. C.		PERIOD IV. <i>From Foundation of Rome to Rise of Persia.</i> 753 TO 538 B. C.	
	PAGE 1		
PERIOD II. <i>From Moses to the Fall of Troy.</i> 1491 TO 1184 B. C.		KINGS OF JUDAH.	
JEWISH JUDGES.			PAGE
Moses	8	Ahas	43
Joshua	10	Hezekiah	44
Othniel	11	Manassch	45
Ehud	12	Amon	46
Shamgar	13	Josiah	ib.
Deborah	ib.	Jehoahaz	48
Gideon	15	Jehoiakim	ib.
Tola	17	Jehoiachin	ib.
		Zedekiah	49
		KINGS OF CHALDEA.	
		Nebuchadnezzar	50
		Ilouardad	52
		Belshazzar	53
PERIOD III. <i>From Fall of Troy to Foundation of Rome.</i> 1184 TO 753 B. C.		PERIOD V. <i>From Rise to Fall of Persia.</i> 538 TO 331 B. C.	
JEWISH JUDGES.		KINGS OF PERSIA.	
Jair	21	Cyaxares	55
Jephthah	ib.	Cyrus the Great	56
Samson	22	Cambyases	58
Eli	23	Darius Hystaspes	ib.
Samuel	ib.	Xerxes	60
		Artaxerxes	61
KINGS OF ISRAEL.		Darius Nothus	68
Saul	24	Artaxerxes Mnemon	69
David	25	Ochus	74
Solomon	26	Arses	77
		Darius Codomanus	ib.
		Alexander the Great	78
KINGS OF JUDAH.		PERIOD VI. <i>From the Fall of Persia to the Advent of Christ.</i> 331 B. C. TO 14 A. D.	
Rehoboam	28	KINGS OF EGYPT. 12 PTOLEMIES.	
Abijah	29	Lagus	81
Asa	ib.	Philadelphus	83
Jeshoabaphat	30	Evergetes	86
Jehoram	35	Philopater	88
Ahaziah	ib.		
Athaliah	ib.		
Josah	36		
Amaziah	37		
Uzziah	38		
Jotham	40		

CRONOLOGICAL INDEX.

xi

	PAGE		PAGE
Epiphnes	90	Pertinax	125
Philometor	91	Septimius Severus	ib.
Physcon	94	Caracalla	127
Lathyros	95	Heliogabalus	ib.
Alexander	98	Alexander Severus	128
Asletes	100	Maximin I.	ib.
Dionysius	102	Gordian	129
Cleopatra	104	Philip	130
EMPEROR OF ROME.		Decius	ib.
Augustus Cæsar	105	Gallus	131
PERIOD VII.		Valerian	ib.
<i>From the Advent of Christ to the Fall</i>		Gallienus	132
<i>of Rome.</i>		Claudius II.	133
A. D. 14 TO 476.		Aurelian	ib.
EMPERORS OF ROME.		Tacitus	134
Tiberius Cæsar	109	Probus	ib.
Caligula Cæsar	113	Carus	ib.
Claudius Cæsar	114	Diocletian	135
Nero Cæsar	115	Constantius I.	} Tetrarchy 136
Galba Cæsar	117	Severus	
Otho Cæsar	ib.	Maximin II.	} Triarchy 138
Vitellius Cæsar	ib.	Constantine the Great	
Vespasian Cæsar	ib.	Constantine II.	} Triarchy 138
Titus Cæsar	118	Constantius II.	
Domitian Cæsar	119	Julian	ib.
Nerva	121	Jovian	139
Trajan	ib.	Valentinian	ib.
Adrian	123	Valens	ib.
Antoninus Pius	124	Gratian	140
Marcus Aurelius	ib.	Theodosius the Great	ib.
Commodus	125	Honorius	141
		Valentinian II.	144
		Ricimer	146

Middle Ages.

PERIOD VIII.		PERIOD IX.	
<i>From the Fall of Rome to the Hegira.</i>		<i>From the Hegira to the Fall of the</i>	
476 TO 622 A. D.		<i>Heptarchy.</i>	
EMPERORS OF THE EAST.		622 TO 828 A. D.	
Zeno	149	SARACEN KALIPHS.	
Anastasius I.	150	Mahomet	156
Justin I.	ib.	Abubeker	158
Justinian I.	152	Omar	159
Justin II.	154	Othman	159
Tiberius	} 154	Ali	160
Mauritius		Mosawiyah	161
Phocas		Yenid	} 162
Heraclius		Merwan	
		Abdalmalec	

	PAGE		PAGE
Al Walid		Edward the Confessor	197
Soliman		Harold II.	200
Omar II.	163		
Yezid II.		PERIOD XI.	
Hesham		<i>The Rule of the House of Normandy.</i>	
Merwan II.	165	1066 to 1154 A. D.	
Al Saffah		William I.	202
Al Mansur	166	William II.	206
Al Mobdi		Henry I.	208
Al Hadi		Matilda	212
Haroun al Raschid	169	Stephen	216
Al Amin	170		
Al Maimon		PERIOD XII.	
		<i>The Rule of the House of Plantagenet.</i>	
PERIOD X.		1154 to 1399 A. D.	
<i>From the Fall of the Heptarchy to the</i>		Henry II.	217
<i>Norman Conquest.</i>		Richard I.	223
828 to 1066 A. D.		John	227
ENGLISH MONARCHS.		Henry III.	232
Egbert the Great	171	Edward I.	238
Ethelwolf	172	Edward II.	247
Ethelbald	175	Edward III.	253
Ethelbert	175	Richard II.	264
Ethelred I.	176		
Alfred the Great	177	PERIOD XIII.	
Edward the Elder	180	<i>The Rule of the House of Lancaster.</i>	
Athelstan	183	1399 to 1471 A. D.	
Edmund I.	185	Henry IV.	268
Edred	186	Henry V.	271
Edwy	187	Henry VI.	274
Edgar	188		
Edward the Martyr	190	PERIOD XIV.	
Ethelred II.	190	<i>The Rule of the House of York.</i>	
Edmund II.	193	1471 to 1485 A. D.	
Canute		Edward IV.	285
Harold I.	194	Edward V.	287
Hardicanute		Richard III.	289

Modern History.

PERIOD XV.		Charles II.	357
<i>The Rule of the House of Tudor.</i>		James II.	381
1485 to 1603 A. D.		William III. and Mary II.	385
Henry VII.	292	Anne	392
Henry VIII.	298		
Edward VI.	308	PERIOD XVII.	
Mary	312	<i>The Rule of the House of Brunswick.</i>	
Elizabeth	317	1714 to 1837 A. D.	
PERIOD XVI.		George I.	406
<i>The Rule of the House of Stuart.</i>		George II.	415
1603 to 1714 A. D.		George III.	446
James I.	330	George IV.	574
Charles I.	342	William IV.	609
		Victoria	618

ANCIENT HISTORY.

PERIOD THE FIRST.

From the Creation to the Delivery of the Israelites by Moses.

4004 TO 1491 B. C.—2513 YEARS.

EVENTS.

The Creation began 4004 years before Christ, and occupied six days. On the first, light was made; on the second, the air and clouds, or firmament; on the third, the land was divided from the water, and trees and herbs were made to grow; on the fourth, were made the sun, moon, and stars; on the fifth, birds and fishes; on the sixth, creeping things and beasts:—and lastly, Man. The seventh day was appointed a Sabbath, or day of rest from toil, to all generations of men, for the purpose of giving time to contemplate the mysteries of creation, and to thank and praise the Almighty Originator for them. Man was created in Chaldea, in Asia, to the north-west of the Persian gulf, and near to the ancient Babylon; and it should seem that the garden of Eden lay on the confluent stream of the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, but principally on the eastern bank; which divided into two branches above the garden, and two more below it. Of the descendants of the two sons of Adam, *Cain* and *Seth*, we find that the former were the fathers of the arts, and the latter the promulgators of religion. Of the events connected with Adam's history and that of his family, we record, from the Holy Scriptures, that his temptation and Fall, whereby he brought death upon all his kind, occurred in the same year with his creation; and

that his sons, Cain and Abel, disputed about the acceptance of their sacrifices in Adam's one hundred and twenty-ninth year. The genealogical line of father and son, from Adam to Noah, consists of ten persons; viz., 1. Adam, who lived to the year 930 of the world; 2. Seth, his righteous son; 3. Enos; 4. Cainan; 5. Mahaleel; 6. Jared; 7. Enoch, who was translated without dying to heaven for his righteousness; 8. Methuselah, who lived nine hundred and sixty-nine years, and was the oldest person of whom we read, his decease occurring in the year of the deluge; 9. Lamech, who prophesied that, although the earth lay under a curse for the sin of Adam, his own son, Noah, would be appointed to bless it, by becoming the second great parent of the human race; 10. Noah, who, for his righteousness, and that of his fathers from Seth, was, with his family, alone saved out of all the descendants of Adam, when the earth was overwhelmed; and from his son *Shem* came Elam, the father of the Elamites, or Persians; Aram of the Syrians; Eber of the Hebrews, and especially the Jews. From his son *Ham*, came the Canaanites, Philistines, and Egyptians, and other Africans. From his son *Japheth* came Gomer father of the Germans; Javan of the Greeks; and *Mashech* of the Muscovites, and northern Europeans

The Deluge, 2348, took place, in consequence of the general depravity of mankind, in the year 1656 of the world. The rain continued forty days and nights, and remained on the earth three hundred and seventy-seven days, the ark of Noah alone being saved, with its contents; viz., Noah, his wife, and three sons, and their wives—eight souls together; with seven pair of every clean, and one pair of every unclean animal.

Tower of Babel, 2247. This nucleus of the city of Babylon and nation of Chaldea was to be built as high as the heavens, in the vain hope of affording an escape, should another flood visit the earth; but, because the descendants of Noah were thus forgetful of God's covenant, sealed with the rainbow, their language became unintelligible to each other, and they were forced to separate into tribes, and to settle in different parts of the earth. Noah himself is supposed to have commenced a government in China; Shem, with his posterity, overspread the rest of Asia; Ham, Syria and Africa; and Japheth, Europe, and probably America by the north. Nimrod, great grandson of Noah, the mighty hunter of Scripture, is supposed to have declared himself monarch of Chaldea thirty years after the dispersion; at which period his relative, Ashur, founded the Assyrian empire. Ninus, who succeeded Ashur, seized upon Chaldea immediately upon the death of Nimrod, and added it to Assyria; and in this united form the two countries remained till the death of Sardanapalus.

China, 2247, was founded, it is supposed, by Noah. It is the only remaining primeval kingdom of the world, having already existed more than 4000 years; and probably owes its duration to the practice of abstaining from changes of every kind. The Chinese fix the dress of each grade of people, and never allow it to be altered; they also try to live without the assistance of other nations. The population is, at present, one hundred

and sixty millions, and the territory is greatly increased by the addition of a large portion of Tartary. The present royal family are Tartars, that people having (as will be hereafter shown) subdued the original Chinese. The religion is pagan; and the people are violently opposed to Christianity. Idols are worshipped by the lower classes; but the more enlightened follow the creed of Confucius.

Assyria, 2218. Ashur, the son of Shem, was sent from the plain of Shinar, by Nimrod, to found a city, to which he gave his name; this city became the capital of the famous empire of Assyria, the city's appellation being changed by Ninus, the successor of Ashur, to Nineveh. Ninus, on the death of Nimrod, king of Chaldea, added that country to his own, but was soon after murdered by his own queen Semiramis, that she might enjoy undivided dominion. She improved the country by constructing roads and aqueducts, and by bringing vast deserts into cultivation; and was not less distinguished as a warrior. She conquered many of the neighbouring nations; and when told, while dressing her hair, that Babylon had revolted, she left her apartment with precipitation, refusing to complete her toilet until the sedition should be quelled.

Egypt, 2218, was founded by Misraim or Menes, son of Ham, and from the latter, called the land of Ham. The people themselves were termed Copts, meaning black, because the soil, the water, and the people, are all of a dingy hue. Egypt was the nurse of the arts, and of the science of astronomy; but its people were gross pagans. Their pyramids were for the burial of the dead, and dedicated to the god Bel, whose fire (*pur*) tapering to a point, as in the flame, was represented by their shape. They embalmed *all* after death, believing in the metempsychosis; but the bodies of kings and nobles alone were placed in the pyramids. The early history of Egypt is much involved in mystery.

Ametho, the Egyptian priest, states that a multitude of men, ignoble in race, poured from Arabia upon Egypt, and overpowered the inhabitants. They were called Hycsos, or shepherd kings, and ruled two hundred and fifty-nine years; when Amosis, king of Upper Egypt, with an army of 400,000 men, so reduced them, that they agreed to depart with their families for Syria, amounting to 240,000 people, which they entered, and built Jerusalem. So great had been their cruelty, that the Egyptians hated the sight of a shepherd whatever his degree, which account, if correct, would explain the observation of Moses 'that every shepherd was an abomination to the Egyptians.' The mode of writing of this people was singular: they had three kinds of character. The hieratic letters were used by the priests, on sacred occasions; the demotic in all civil and secular matters; and the hieroglyphic to describe actions in a mysterious manner. The last named consisted of pictures of every description, of men, beasts, flowers, and instruments. It is to be regretted that no system approaching to accuracy, whereby Egyptian writing may be deciphered, has been hit upon by modern inquirers. Egypt remained independent 1663 years; when Cambyzes made it a province of Persia.

Phœnicia, 2200, was founded by Sidon, the grandson of Ham. From Canaan, the father of Sidon, the whole land of Syria where he settled derived its name. The northern portion was called Phœnicia, signifying a date or palm, that tree growing there in abundance. The Canaanites were called Philistines, or Cherethites by the Hebrews, meaning strangers or Cretans, because they had originally come from Crete, at that time Cherith; and hence the Greeks applied the term, with a little corruption, to the country itself, calling it Palestine. Canaan has also had the various titles of the land of promise, from God's promise to Abraham; of *Israel* from the conquest of it by the Israelites; *Judæa* from Judah;

and lastly, the *Holy Land*, from its having been the scene of our Saviour's ministry. When the city of Tyre began to flourish, all Phœnicia was called Tyre; and as merchants, navigators, and planters of colonies, no people have been more famous than the Tyrians. The Greeks divided Phœnicia into Phœnicia proper, or the sea-coast, the inhabitants of which were sprung from Canaan; and Syro-Phœnicia, or the inland portion, which had many Cherethites therein.

Sicyon, 2089, was the first state of ancient Greece, and was founded by Ægialeus. Greece had its origin therefore in the modern Morea. At length, other portions of the same peninsula were added to Sicyon, each having its own ruler, until the whole was included: the mainland north of the Morea, and the adjacent islands, were gradually taken in, until the south of modern Turkey in Europe was included. These states entered into a league, resembling the present Germanic confederacy, to defend each other in case of assault from without; and the generic terms Graian and Hellenist, from two early rulers, were indiscriminately applied to an inhabitant of any one of them. The poets, too, use the appellations Spartan, Argive, Ionian, &c., to denote a Greek of any state.—We know little of the people of Sicyon, but that they were luxurious; and that Sicyonian shoes were considered long as marks of effeminacy. The origin of both Greeks and Romans was apparently Pelasgic. The Pelasgi (or *sea-crossers*) were probably the same as the Philistines of Syria, as the two names have nearly the same meaning: at all events they travelled westward from Asia, the cradle of mankind; and, as the northmen, colony after colony, emigrated to the British islands and France, so they at an early period strayed into Italy and Greece. In like manner, as the French northmen became sooner civilized in Normandy than their brethren in England, and in after times subdued the latter, so the

Greeks appear to have first risen in science and the arts, and to have established themselves over their still barbaric brethren (in Magna Græcia, the southern portion of Italy), whom they regarded, in their ignorance of their common origin, as an inferior race. How often may the same result have occurred in the history of mankind! 'When the Saracen and the Goth, coming from opposite quarters of the earth, encountered in Spain 1200 years ago, they bore with them not only ineradicable traces of the same form and feature, but some fragments of the original tongue. They were brothers, who parted at the foot of Caucasus, to meet again after uncounted centuries; each having described, in his march, a wide curve over the earth's surface, on the coast of the Atlantic Ocean.' The kingdom of Sicyon ended 1088 B. C.

The Greek Dialects, 2089. As the Greek nation arose state by state, various *dialects* or modes of speaking the language were generated. The difference of these did not merely consist in occasional forms and sounds of words, but penetrated to the very heart of the language; so that even the structure and connexion of sentences, and the whole character of expression, became various, though the same fundamental rules of speech prevailed in all. The *Epic* dialect, in which Homer wrote, was first matured: allied to this, the *Ionian* was afterwards formed; the two being frequently contrasted as old and new *Ionian*. To this branch belongs also the *Attic*, in its several ages. Next to the *Ionians*, the *Æolians* formed their dialect in Asia, that in which Sappho and Alcæus wrote, and in *Bœotia* wherein Pindar composed: the *Dorians* also acquired a written dialect, that of the Pythagoreans and Theophrastus. The selection of that which is common to the *Attic* and the others, constitutes the *common* dialect. Next in order stands the *ecclesiastical* dialect, from which the *Romaic*, or modern Greek is derived—which is so

called, because the people of Greece were so long subject to the Roman-Byzantine empire, and were therefore termed *Romaioi*.

The Call of Abraham, 1921. The family of Shem, from which that of the Messiah sprung, settled at Ur, in Chaldea; but had become, in common with other tribes after the dispersion, idolatrous. Abraham, however, the son of Terah, was remarkable for understanding and piety; and at seventy-five years of age, was called by the Almighty to make known his will to the erring offspring of Noah. Accordingly he went with his father, and Sarah his wife, and his nephew Lot, into Haran: whence, after the death of Terah, he removed into the land of Canaan. Here Abraham and Lot lived with their respective families in amity; and at length their herds and flocks so greatly increased, that debates arose among their servants about convenient pasturage, and Abraham proposed a separation. Lot assented and chose the plain of Jordan, which was every where well watered, and pitched his tent near Sodom; but he had not been settled there many years, when Chedorlaomer, king of Elam in Persia, brought an army against the king of Sodom, who had rebelled against him; and having overrun several kingdoms about the land of Canaan, carried away much spoil, and many captives, among whom were Lot and his family. Abraham was immediately informed of what was done, and having armed his trained servants, pursued the enemy, attacked them by surprise in the night, rescued all the captives, and brought back Lot and his goods to his former habitation. The inhabitants of Sodom and Gomorrah were, however, so lost to all sense of religion, and given up to impure lusts, that God resolved to destroy them; but sent two angels for the preservation of Lot. They accordingly took Lot and his wife and his two daughters; and, having led them out of the city, charged them to flee without the least

body. But, as they went toward *Zoar*, the wife of Lot, though directed not to do so, looked back, and her body being covered with the shower of nitro-sulphureous matter then falling, was converted into a pillar of salt, as hard and durable as stone, which Josephus says existed in his time. The plain wherein these cities stood was probably first ignited by lightning, which seized the bitumen so abundant there; and being afterwards overflowed by the waters of the Jordan, the Dead Sea was formed, which exists to this day, and is noted for the unwholesome air of its neighbourhood, its bituminous exhalations, and its production of inflammable stones. Meanwhile Abraham, safe in the plain of Mamre, where he kept his large herds and flocks, was in many ways helped by divine communications. A son was granted to him and his wife Sarah in their old age; and this son, Isaac, dear as he necessarily was to them, was ordered to be offered up in sacrifice, as a trial of their faith. Abraham complied; and while prepared to slay his child on the mountain of Moriah, an angel stayed his hand. For this great act of faith and trust in the Supreme Being, he was honoured by God himself with the glorious name of Father of the Faithful, and the promise was renewed to him that all nations of the earth should through him be blessed. Meanwhile Ishmael, the son of Abraham by Hagar his bond-woman, was sent forth into the wilderness to seek his livelihood, and became the father of the Ishmaelites or Arabs of the desert, as Isaac was the parent of the Jewish nation. Melchisedek, king of Salem, that is of Jerusalem, is mentioned in the book of Genesis as having brought forth bread and wine to refresh Abraham, after his rescue of Lot his relative from king Chedorlaomer close by Damascus, 1913. Melchisedek is termed both king and priest of the most high God; and Abraham gave him tithe of all the spoil he had taken in the combat, it

having been a practice, long before the institution of tithes amongst the Jews, to devote a tenth of what was taken in war to sacred purposes. In the primitive ages the offices of king and priest were usually combined. Mahomet saw the advantage of such an union, and the Pope appears to think in this respect with the founder of Islamism.

Argos, 1856. This Grecian state was founded by Inachus, and afterwards united to Mycenæ. Its most famous king was Agamemnon, and the people were called Argivi and Argolici.

Letters invented, 1822, by Memnon king of Egypt; but whether the three varieties used by the Egyptians is uncertain.

Joseph, 1728, was sold by his jealous brethren, and carried a slave into Egypt. Under the especial guidance of God, he rose to be the king's prime minister, and saw, during the famine, his brothers prostrate themselves before him, according to his dreams. He sent for his father, Jacob or Israel, to settle with his sons in Goshen, a part of Egypt, where, in process of time, they increased so as to become the great nation known as the children of Israel or Jews. The twelve tribes into which they were divided, arose from the twelve sons of Jacob: Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah, Issachar, and Zebulun, by Leah, Joseph and Benjamin by Rachel, Gad and Asher by Zilpah, and Dan and Naphtali by Bilhah.

Sesostris, 1722. This was probably the Pharaoh, or Amenophis, or king, who was Joseph's master. He was son of Rameses V., whose body, in the mummy state, is said to be at present in England, according to the alleged interpretation of the hieroglyphical inscription on its leather bandage. He conquered Libya, Ethiopia, and Arabia, and placed columns in all the vanquished provinces with the inscription—"Sesostris, king of kings, hath conquered this territory by his arms." He erected many

temples and pyramids, and helped navigation by cutting numerous canals. The largest of the three great pyramids, on the rocky and barren hills of Geezeh, used to cover an area of 570,000 square feet; but as the casing of it has been removed, it now occupies a much less space. Its height is 474 feet. They stand exactly due north and south; and probably served an astronomical purpose, beyond that of being places of sepulture. While the direction of the faces to the east and west might show the return of a certain period of the year, the shadow cast by the sun, or the time of its coincidency with their slope, might be observed for a similar object. At the bottom of their inclined passages, the stars can, at any time of day, be seen by the naked eye.

Athens, 1556, the most interesting of the Grecian states, was founded by Cecrops, and an Egyptian colony. He reigned fifty years, and was the first who gave laws to the states before founded, established religion, and instituted marriage. In a few years, Athens became a solecism in politics, its people ruling, in a democratic form, not only in their own state, but supreme over other people in subordinate republics, all acknowledging subjection to them, yet claiming freedom for themselves. Under this extraordinary constitution, philosophy and the arts, which, migrating from Egypt and the East, had long been fostered on the western coast of Asia, made Athens, on a sudden, their principal resort. Under a modern king, Athens will probably, at no distant date, rival in grandeur its ancient prototype; and it is gratifying to know that the utmost pains are taking by the young monarch Otho to preserve the relics of past ages from destruction. The Athenians, like the Romans, lived in public. The men quitted their houses in the morning for the forum, which was ornamented with magnificent porticoes, baths, and theatres. Here they passed the day,

in the discussion of affairs of state, in listening to orators, in witnessing trials of skill, and as St. Luke in the Acts observes, "spending their time in nothing else but either to tell, or to hear, some new thing." *The Barathrum* was a public pit in the city, into which condemned criminals were thrown and left to perish. *The Lyceum* was the public school wherein the orators declaimed, whether as pleaders like our barristers, or as political advisers and censors. Pericles erected the musical theatre called the *Odeon*: it was ornamented with sculpture by Phidias, and was frequented with great ardour by the people, who were passionately devoted to music, and made it an essential portion of their children's education. The lowest class of Athenians were called *Theti*.

Troy, 1546, the capital of Troas, was founded by Scamander of Crete. It was built on an eminence near Mount Ida, in Mysia, Asia Minor, four miles from the sea. The country has had various names, as Dardania, Troja, Ilion, &c., from its respective kings.

Job. The prophet Ezekiel and the apostle James both allude to Job as having really lived, a fact which many have disputed from the simple circumstance of the book called by his name being a dramatic composition. For a like cause has the existence of Troy been called in question, and of many other important places as well as persons; objections which must necessarily fall before the consideration that the early history of every nation of which we read, has been recorded in poetry of some kind or another. Job, then, the contemporary of Eliphaz the Temanite, who lived 1520 B.C., dwelt in the eastern land of Uz, and seems to have been a person of exalted rank: his substance and possessions were very great: he had also seven sons and three daughters; but he was more distinguished and honoured for his piety and benevolence. Satan is represented as sus-

pecting the sincerity of this good man, and alleging, that if he were deprived of his fortune and health, his temper and conduct would change with his circumstances. Permission, therefore, was granted by the Almighty for the trial of his integrity, and accordingly afflictions were heaped upon his head : he became as remarkable for calamity as he had been for prosperity ; his oxen and camels were taken away by robbers ; his sheep were consumed by lightning ; and his children overwhelmed by a house blown down by a whirlwind. He was afterwards seized with a violent distemper, which overspread his body with sore boils, from the sole of his foot to the crown of his head ; and his wife, who ought to have taken a share in his distress, and lessened the weight of it by all the kind offices in her power, rashly advised him to murmur against the divine justice, and to provoke God to destroy him. His friends concluded, from his uncommon calamities, that he was a great sinner and hypocrite ; and argued with him that God is strictly just, rewarding virtue and punishing vice ; and that therefore he must either confess his own guilt, or charge God with unrighteousness. Job, in his answer, acknowledges indeed that he was not infallible, and free from common failings, and that consequently he ought to be humble and submissive under the hand of God ; but insists that he was honest and sincere in the discharge of his duty, and appeals, in vindication of it, from the false judgment of men to the unerring judgment of God. He asserts that there is little or no difference between the good and the wicked in the external administration of providence, that both are liable to the same misfortunes, and often involved in one common ruin ; which fully proves that there must be a future state, in which the righteous who suffer here will be signally rewarded. At length, in order to determine the debate, the unerring Judge himself is represented as interposing, to show

how unable men are to explain the ways and designs of Heaven, and to declare in favour of Job, against the opinion of his friends : “ Ye have not spoken of Me the thing that is right, as my servant Job hath.” He then put an end to his sufferings, blessed him with a numerous offspring, and gave him twice as much wealth as he had before ; so that the latter end of his life was more prosperous than the beginning of it. The example of Job teaches us to resign ourselves patiently to afflictions, and to bend our wills to the divine will : still to rely upon God with full trust and confidence, and not only to justify, but to glorify him, in all that is brought upon us.

Deucalion, 1503, his father Prometheus, and his son Amphictyon, are all famous in classic history.—*Prometheus* is fabled to have offended Jupiter, by befriending man, for whom he stole fire from the sun. He also made a man and woman of clay, and animated them by fire, for which he was tied to a rock on Mount Caucasus, where for thirty thousand years a vulture was to feed upon his liver, though in thirty Hercules released him. *Pandora*, the first mortal woman, was offered as a wife to Prometheus by Jupiter, as a punishment for his crimes. Vulcan made her of clay, and gave her life ; and all the gods vied in making her presents. Venus gave her beauty ; Apollo taught her music ; Mercury eloquence ; Minerva gave her wisdom, and the Graces completed her education. With a box in her hand, the present of Jupiter, she was introduced to Prometheus, who, aware of the design, would not speak to her ; but his brother Epimetheus married her, and upon opening the casket which she bestowed upon him, there issued forth a multitude of evils and distempers, which dispersed themselves throughout the world, and from that fatal moment have never failed to afflict the human race. Hope alone remained at the bottom ; and she only has the power of soothing the sorrows of man, and of pointing to brighter

prospects. *Deucalion* was king of Thessaly, 1503, when a flood destroyed his whole country, drowning the inhabitants. These he restored by throwing his mother's bones (the stones of the earth) over his head, according to the direction of the oracle.—*Amphiclyon*, third king of Athens, founded the celebrated council of the Amphiclyons, which conducted the affairs of United Greece for more than 1600 years. It consisted at first of twelve deputies, sent from the twelve most powerful states. It met at Delphi, in spring and autumn, to decide all public differences, the celebrated oracle assisting it. On extraordinary occasions it was in deliberation the whole year round; and when Delphi was visited with war, it sat at Thermopylæ. Before each assembly, an ox was sacrificed, and cut into small pieces, as a symbol of the union of its members; and its decrees were held sacred and

inviolable by every Grecian state. In after times, the number of Amphiclyons was increased to thirty. The decrees of this council were received so recently as A.D. 138.

Thebes, 1493. Cadmus, son of Agenor, king of Phœnicia, was sent by his father in quest of his sister Europa, whom Jupiter had carried away. Unsuccessful in his search, he settled in Bœotia, and founded the city of Thebes (so called afterwards from Thebe, whose relative, Amphion, when he completed the city, named it in her honour), and introduced the Phœnician alphabet into his new colony. Thebes became another Grecian state, although out of the Peloponnesus—and its people were noted for their sluggishness and want of talent. It retained its independence 1158 years, until its subjugation by Alexander.

PERIOD THE SECOND.

From Moses to the Fall of Troy, in the Judgeship of Tola.

1491 TO 1184 B. C.—307 YEARS.

SECTION I.

THE LEGATION OF MOSES.

1491 TO 1451—40 YEARS.

Moses, the great lawgiver of the Jews, and the meekest of mankind, was born of the tribe of Levi, in Goshen; and when Pharaoh ordered the destruction of all the Israelitish male children, he was saved by his mother, who committed him to the Nile in an ark of bulrushes. The king's daughter saw the child floating, and pleased with its beauty, secretly brought it up. The Israelites had now increased to 600,000, besides children; and the Egyptians had long made them their builders and servants. Pharaoh's oppression of the chosen people became at length so serious, that God called Moses, at the burning bush, to deliver his countrymen. To effect this, the most wondrous miracles were worked by his hand, none of which had any effect upon the king, until the destruction of the first-born of man and beast; when, in the height of rage, he dismissed the injured people from his land, 1491. They miraculously passed safely through the Red Sea, pursued by the furious monarch and his host, who were engulfed in its waves; and after forty years, consumed in traversing to and fro (for their sins' sake) the desert

between Egypt and Syria, during which period they were sustained by a supernatural supply of manna, and by water which accompanied them by the way-side, their apparel remaining unimpaired, and 'their shoes waxing not old,' they at length came within sight of the promised land. The mysterious cloud had guided them by day, and the pillar of heavenly fire by night; they resting as the pillar rested, and moving as the cloud moved. At length the illustrious lawgiver having reached the summit of Mount Pisgah, whence he could obtain a prospect of Canaan, yielded up his spirit 1451, at the age of one hundred and twenty, to his heavenly guide, who buried him unseen by his people, nor were they ever able to discover the place of his sepulture.

EVENTS.

Tithes were instituted by Moses, about 1460. As the priests and Levites had no share in the division of the land, beyond a number of cities, they were supported by the tithe or tenth part of the produce of the lands: this tenth was paid to the Levites, who again paid a tenth of all which they received to the priests. This method of maintaining those employed upon the divine service seems to have been adopted that they might have leisure for their sacred offices, and that their thoughts might not be diverted by the business of tillage and other such employments; but it is impossible to assign any direct reason why a tenth, and neither more nor less, was awarded to the ministers of religion. It has been observed, that tithe of the spoils of war was paid long prior to this period; and it was from time immemorial a right amongst the people of the east. Aristotle mentions it as an ancient law in Babylon, and the same law also obtained in Athens. Romulus devoted a *third* of the lands to religious uses.

The Olympic Games. The public games of Greece were instituted at various periods, in honour either of a god or hero. Running, leaping, wrestling, boxing, and throwing the quoit were exhibited, beside horse and chariot-races, and contentions in poetry, eloquence, and the fine arts. As fame was the idol of the ancients, the rewards were not of a pecuniary nature. There were only four eminent games—the Olympic, the Isthmian, the Pythian, and the Nemean; and each was celebrated at least once in four years, and attended by the great and

learned of every state. The Olympic were first established in 1453, by the Idei Dactyli, at Elis, in honour of Jupiter Olympius; and the rewards were a crown of olive, a triumphal return to the victor's residence through a breach made in the city walls, and a statue to his memory after death.

Jewish Memoranda. The feast of *Passover* was instituted to commemorate God's having 'passed over' his chosen people, when he brought destruction in one night on the first-born of the Egyptians: and it is still annually held, though with corrupted forms, by the modern Jews. The feast *Pentecost* was a thanksgiving for the beginning of wheat-harvest; and that of *Tabernacles*, held, when the harvest was gathered in, was to commemorate their having lived so long in tents in the wilderness; the people quitting their houses, and dwelling seven days in booths. The *Neomenia* were feasts held equally by the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, Egyptians, and Persians, in honour of the new moon. Even in England there are remote traces of a similar observance at the present day; where, in the provinces, the rustics turn what money they chance to have in their pockets, and sing invocations to the planet, lest some misfortune should befall them during the month. The *ten plagues*, which Moses was permitted to bring upon the Egyptians were—1. the waters turned into blood; 2. frogs; 3. lice; 4. flies; 5. death of the cattle; 6. boils on man and beast; 7. lightning and hail; 8. locusts; 9. thick darkness; 10. death of the first-

born. The *Decalogue*, or ten commandments, were given by God to Moses on Mount Sinai, three months after the departure from Egypt, on two tables of stone; the first containing man's duty to God, in four precepts, and the other his duty to his

neighbour, in six. The *Pentateuch* (or five volumes) written by Moses, includes Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, and Deuteronomy, the inspired and only account of the creation and the origin of evil, and the most ancient book extant.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Pûpay, an oriental philosopher, of whom nothing is known except that he was vizier of Dabshelim, king of India, and author of fables, called 'Kelile Wadimine, or the Fox,' which animal is made the principal interlocutor. They have been translated into most modern languages; but the best version is in French, by Galland.

Danaus, son of Belus, king of Egypt, had been joint sovereign of Egypt with his brother Ægyptus; but disagreeing with him, had sailed to Greece, with his fifty daughters, in quest of a settlement. He dethroned Gelanor, king of Argos, 1485, thus extinguishing the house of Inachus, and beginning that of the Belides. The success of Danaus invited the fifty sons of Ægyptus to embark for Greece, and they were kindly received by their uncle, who, warned by an oracle that a son-in-law should ruin him, caused his daughters, to whom they were

promised in marriage, to murder them on the day of their nuptials. His orders were executed by all but Hypemnestra, who saved her husband Lynceus, and who reigned with him over Argos on the death of Danaus. The forty-nine sisters were condemned in the kingdom of Pluto to pour water continually into a vessel full of holes, so that their labour was infinite, and their punishment eternal.

Aaron, the elder brother of Moses, was the friend and assistant of his brother; and as being more happily gifted with eloquence, attended him in all his interviews with Pharaoh. Though he offended God by making a golden calf, in compliance with the wishes of the rebellious Israelites, he was allowed to be made the first high-priest, but not to enter the promised land; and the chief office of the priesthood was made hereditary in his family.

SECTION II.

THE RULE OF JOSHUA.

1451 TO 1426—25 YEARS.

Joshua, the son of Nun, and chief captain of Moses, succeeded the law-giver as leader, and proved himself a brave and fearless conductor of the Jewish people. He routed out many of the idolatrous nations of Canaan, and obtained possession of a large portion of that promised land. His miracle of staying the earth's diurnal progress for some hours, was an admirable proof to the Canaanites, and to his own followers, who had so constantly witnessed the adoration of the sun in Egypt, that the heavenly bodies are creatures, and therefore not objects of worship. Joshua died, aged 110.

EVENTS.

The Heathen gods. The false gods of Canaan, were Baal or Bel, god of the sun; Astarte, of the Moon; Chemosh, of feasting; Moloch, to whom children were sacrificed; and Dagon, whose statue fell before the ark of the covenant. The chief gods of the Egyptians, were Bel, the sun; Apis,

Scamius, or Osiris, the ox; Isis, the cow; and Anubis, the dog.—The Greeks had twelve chief gods, called Consentes: 1. Jupiter, father of gods and men; 2. Neptune, god of the sea; 3. Vulcan, god of fire and inventor of arms; 4. Mars, god of war; 5. Mercury, god of arts and sciences and messenger of Jupiter; 6. Apollo or Phœbus, god of the sun, and of the fine arts. The island of Delos, one of the Cyclades, was especially sacred to Apollo. An altar there built by the god himself, when only four years old, was religiously kept pure from blood; and so great was the veneration, even of the Persians, for the place, that although they pillaged all the other temples of Greece, they abstained from any injury to that of Delos. The common treasures of Greece were there deposited. 7. Juno, wife of Jupiter, and queen of heaven; 8. Minerva or Pallas, goddess of wisdom; 9. Vesta, of fire or vital heat; 10. Ceres, of agriculture; 11. Venus, of beauty; 12. Diana, goddess of hunting. Some of the minor deities were—1. Saturnus, god of time and father

of Jupiter, in whose honour were instituted by the pagans, long before the foundation of Rome, the festivals called *Saturnalia*, to commemorate the freedom and equality of the golden reign of Saturn; 2. Janus, king of Italy, whom Saturn endowed with the power of ascertaining future events, and of remembering the past: hence he was double-faced; 3. Pluto, god of the infernal regions; 4. Plutus, of wealth; 5. Bacchus, of wine; the *Anthesteria* were festivals in honour of Bacchus, celebrated in all the Grecian states in the month of February, which was called *Anthesterion*; 6. Cybele, mother of the gods; 7. Aurora, daughter of the sun, and his daily precursor; 8. Astræa, goddess of justice; 9. Circe, goddess of magic; 10. Bellona, of war; 11. Hygeia, of health; 12. Hebe, of youth; 13. Nemesis, of revenge; 14. Iris, of the rainbow; 15. Thetis, of the sea; 16. Hymen, god of marriage; 17. Æolus, of the winds; 18. Morpheus, god of sleep; 19. Comus, god of revelry; 20. Momus, of laughter. Amounting in all to 30,000!

SECTION III.

OTHNIEL, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1426 to 1354—72 YEARS.

Othniel. On the death of Joshua, Judah and Simeon, two brothers, who acted as officers in the army, led the Israelites against Jerusalem and took it: and Othniel having taken the strong city of Debir, and obtained a wife and large possessions by so doing, was some time after chosen principal leader and judge. His most remarkable conquest was that of the king of Mesopotamia; after which he ruled Israel in peace forty years.

EVENTS.

The laws of Minos promulgated. Minos I. king of Crete, fabled to be Jupiter's son, gave a code of laws to his subjects, 1406, which remained in force more than a thousand years. His justice and moderation procured him the appellation of the favourite of the gods in every city of Greece; and, according to the poets, he was rewarded for his equity, after death,

with the office of supreme judge in the infernal regions. In this capacity, he is represented sitting in the middle of the shades, and holding a sceptre in his hand. The dead plead their different causes before him; and the impartial judge shakes the fatal urn, which is filled with the destinies of mankind.

Corinth was founded 1376, by Si-

syphus. He gave it the name of Ephyre, and it subsequently took that of Corinth from Corinthus, son of Pelops. It became a very important state of Greece, and colonized Syracuse in Sicily, delivering it from its oppressors by means of Timoleon. The artists of Corinth were famous for the metal called Corinthian brass, which was estimated beyond pure gold. The government was monarchical until 779 B. C., when officers called prytanes were appointed. Sisyphus was the most crafty prince of the heroic ages. For his excessive cruelty to strangers, whom he murdered after robbing them, by stifling

them under a load of stones, he was condemned, after death, to roll to the top of a hill a large stone, which had no sooner reached the summit, than it fell back into the plain with impetuosity, and rendered his punishment eternal.

The *Eleusinian mysteries* were introduced at Athens by Eumolpus, 1356, and observed every fourth year, in honour of Ceres and Proserpine her daughter, for nine days in September. This institution was by far the most celebrated of all the religious ceremonies of Greece. Any one who revealed what passed thereat was instantly put to death.

SECTION IV.

EHUD, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1354 to 1316—38 YEARS.

Ehud. Eglon, king of Moab, when Othniel was dead, made an irruption into the territory of the Israelites, who had been of late years unaccustomed to war; and made them tributary. At length, however, Ehud, a Benjamite, although a left-handed man, was chosen the successor of Othniel, to deliver the people from the oppressive taxation of the Moabites, whom he routed on the banks of Jordan, and of whose fat soldiers he slew 10,000. Affecting to have a secret message to deliver, the monarch admitted him to the summer parlour wherein he was sitting alone, when Ehud drew a dagger, and stabbed him in the abdomen with his left hand. It is recorded also that the haft of the instrument went in after the blade, and that the fat closed upon the whole, so that it could not be extracted.

EVENT.

The Isthmian games were instituted at Corinth, 1326, and celebrated on the isthmus there, to commemorate the arrival on that shore of the dead bodies of Melicerta, and his mother Ino. Ino was daughter of Cadmus, and wife of Athamas, king of Thebes.

The king drove her, with her son in her arms, from a rock into the sea, taking her, in a fit of insanity, for a lioness. The games consisted of all kinds of combats, and the rewards were garlands of pine-leaves, and crowns of parsley.

EMINENT PERSON.

Perseus. He was son of Danae; and an oracle having foretold that Acrisius, king of Argos, Perseus's grandfather, should fall by Danae's son, he and his mother were thrown into the sea. They escaped drowning, however, and Perseus is fabled to

have gone to Libya to attack the formidable gorgon Medusa, Minerva, the goddess of wisdom, having lent him her shield. He cut off the gorgon's head, and placed it upon the shield, that it might convert to stone all who dared to look upon it. After

performing many wonders, especially the deliverance of Andromeda from a sea-monster, he visited the games of Larissa, where he accidentally killed his grandfather, who was amongst the spectators, in hurling a quoit. He built Mycenæ, 1344.

SECTION V.

SHAMGAR, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1316 to 1296—20 YEARS.

Shamgar. Nothing more is recorded of this leader of the Israelites than that he routed the army of the Philistines, occasioning it a loss of 600 men by miraculous means; that is to say, he slew that number himself with an ox-goad, and secured his people from further annoyance. What precise nation of Canaan the Philistines were, as the term applies indefinitely to every inhabitant of that land, cannot now be decided.

EMINENT PERSON.

Triptolemus, son of Celeus king of Athens, whose history is involved in fable, was cured in his youth of a severe illness by the goddess Ceres, who had been invited into the palace by the monarch's children, when travelling in quest of her daughter. Her attempts to render him immortal were frustrated by Neræa his mother, who disturbed the goddess during the performance of a sacred rite; she therefore resolved to make him useful to his fellow-men, and instructed him in the method of sowing corn, which had not been before practised by mortals.

SECTION VI.

DEBORAH, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1296 to 1249—47 YEARS.

Deborah, an acknowledged prophetess, succeeded Shamgar; and issued her decrees under a palm-tree in mount Ephraim. She instructed Barak to lead the army against Jabin, king of Canaan, and defeated that monarch's general, Sisera. When Sisera, in his flight, sought refuge in the tent of Heber the Kenite, Jael, the wife of Heber, gave him food, and encouraged him to take rest; but when he was asleep, she drove a nail through his temples and destroyed him. The song of Deborah is one of the finest specimens of Hebrew poetry.

EVENTS.

The Argonauts. Athamas, king of Thebes, married Ino, and then Nephele; but Nephele's children, Phryxus and Helle, were first born, and hated by Ino. To escape her vengeance, they fled on an enchanted ram towards Colchis; but Helle fell into the sea, on crossing the Hellespont, whence its name. Phryxus reached the court of king Æetes and was kindly received; but that king, in order to obtain the golden fleece of the ram, eventually murdered him. When Jason demanded his father's throne of Iolchos from Pelias, the usurper, Pelias promised it him if he would avenge the murder of their common kinsman, Phryxus. Assembling, therefore, fifty of the most illustrious men of Greece, amongst whom were Orpheus, Castor, and Hercules, Jason embarked in the ship

Argo, and sailed to Colchis. *Æetes* promised the fleece to Jason, on condition of his performing four labours: viz., to tame two bulls which vomited flames: to tie them to a plough of adamant, and plough a field never before cultivated: to sow there the teeth of a dragon, from which an army would rise to be destroyed by his hand: and to kill the dragon which guarded the tree, whereon the fleece was suspended. All was effected by the aid of *Medea*, the king's daughter, a famous magician, in one day; and she returned with Jason as his wife, in the *Argo*. The evils which this union brought upon Jason form the subject of one of *Euripides'* finest tragedies. The *Hellespont* is

also famed for the drowning of *Leander*, a youth of *Abydos*, who swam nightly across it to visit *Hero*, a beautiful priestess of *Venus* at *Sestos*. *Hero*, when she knew of the death of her lover, threw herself into the sea and perished.

Pythian Games were first celebrated at *Argos* by *Adrastus*, in honour of *Apollo*, 1263. Musical trials were the main object; and the reward was a garland of palm or beech leaves. They were named from *Pythia*, the inspired priestess of *Apollo* at *Delphi*; or from *Apollo's* destruction of the serpent *Python*, which the jealous *Juno* had created to plague his mother, *Latona*.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Pelops, son of *Tantalus* king of *Phrygia*, was put to death by his father, and placed before the gods, who visited *Phrygia* in disguise, to try their divinity. *Jupiter* restored him to life, though *Ceres* had ignorantly eaten a shoulder, which was replaced by one of ivory, capable of healing all complaints by its touch. *Pelops* became king of *Pisa* by stratagem. *Ænomaus*, the sovereign, had offered his crown and his daughter to whomsoever could beat him in the chariot-race: whereupon *Pelops* bribed the charioteer to delay his master's steeds. From his great conquests in the *Morea*, that country took the name of *Peloponnesus*. *Tantalus*, for his numerous impieties, was punished after death, in the realms of *Pluto*, by an insatiable thirst; for though placed up to the chin in a pool, the water flowed from him upon his attempting to drink, and though above his head was a bough laden with delicious fruit, it was suddenly carried away by a gust of wind whenever he attempted to reach it. Hence the word *tantalize*.

Ædipus, son of *Laius*, king of *Thebes*, by his queen *Jocasta*. The oracle having declared that *Laius* should fall by the hand of *Jocasta's* son, she ordered him, when an infant, to be exposed on the mountains. The

servant commissioned to the deed bored the child's feet, and suspended him to a tree by the heels, in which situation the king of *Corinth's* shepherds found him. They brought him up, gave him the name of *Ædipus* (swelled feet), and sent him to consult the oracle. He was instructed not to return home, lest he should kill his father; and supposing one of the shepherds to be that parent, he travelled towards *Phocis*. On his way his real father met him, riding in a chariot; and upon his rudely desiring the youth, whom he knew not, to make way for him, *Ædipus* struck and eventually killed the king. He passed on to *Thebes*, and solving the *Sphinx's* riddle (what is that which walks on four legs in the morning on two at noon, and three at night), became entitled to the crown of *Thebes*, and *Jocasta* (his mother) for a wife. When a plague afterwards visited *Thebes*, the oracle declared it to be owing to the incestuous murderer of *Laius* being in *Boeotia*. *Ædipus* soon discovered his criminality with horror; he fled thereupon to *Attica*, having put out his own eyes, and at a certain spot the earth swallowed him up, 1250. There are two tragedies of *Sophocles* on his history.

Orpheus, son of the muse *Calliope*, received a lyre from *Apollo*, upon which he played with so masterly a hand, that the most rapid rivers ceased to flow, the savage beasts of the forest forgot their wildness, and the mountains moved, to listen to his song. All nature seemed charmed and animated, and the nymphs were his constant companions. *Eurydice* was the only one who made a deep impression on the melodious musician, and their nuptials were celebrated. Their happiness, however, was short; *Aristæus* became enamoured of *Eurydice*, and as she fled from her pursuer, a serpent, lurking in the grass, bit her foot, and she died of the poisoned wound. Her loss was severely felt by *Orpheus*, and he resolved to recover her, or perish. With his lyre in his hand, he entered the infernal regions, and gained an easy admission to the palace of *Pluto*. The king was charmed with the melody of his strains, and, according to the beautiful expression of the poets, the wheel of *Ixion* stopped, the stone of *Sisyphus* stood still, *Tantalus* forgot his perpetual thirst, and even the *Furies* relented. *Pluto* and *Proserpine* were moved with his sorrow, and consented to restore *Eurydice*, provided he forbore looking behind till he had come to the extremest borders of hell. The conditions were gladly accepted, and *Orpheus* was already in sight of the upper regions of the air, when he forgot his promise and turned back to look at his long lost *Eurydice*. He saw her, but she

instantly vanished. He attempted to follow her, but was refused admission, and the only comfort he could find was to sooth his grief at the sound of his musical instrument, in grottos, or on the mountains. The Thracian women, while celebrating the orgies of *Bacchus*, tore him in pieces, and threw his head into the *Hebrus*, which still articulated the words *Eurydice! Eurydice!* as it was carried down the stream into the *Ægean* sea. *Orpheus* was one of the *Argonauts*, of which celebrated expedition he wrote a poetical account still extant.

Castor and *Pollux*, twin sons of *Jupiter* and *Leda*, were educated by *Mercury*, and, in the expedition of *Jason*, behaved with superior courage. A storm arising while they were on board the *Argo*, two flames of fire were seen to play around their heads, and immediately the tempest ceased, and the sea was calm. From this occurrence, their power to protect sailors has been firmly credited, and the two mentioned fires, which are very common in storms, have since been known by the names of *Castor* and *Pollux*. *Castor* distinguished himself in the management of horses. The brothers cleared the *Hellespont* and the neighbouring seas from pirates after their return from *Colchis*, from which circumstance they have been especially deemed the friends of navigation. After death they were made constellations in heaven, under the name of *Gemini*, which never appear together, but when one rises the other sets, and so on alternately.

SECTION VII.

GIDEON, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1249 to 1209—40 YEARS.

Gideon, of the tribe of *Manasseh*, was called to be judge of *Israel* while threshing. He was assured of God's appointment, by the miracle of the wet and dry fleece. He saved *Israel* from the *Midianites*, killing their two princes, *Oreb* and *Zeeb*.

EVENTS.

Destruction of the Minotaur. Theseus, son of Ægeus king of Athens, is famous for various deeds of prowess, but especially for his destruction of the Minotaur. This was a monster kept by Minos II., king of Crete, who conquered Athens; and it was yearly fed with seven youths and seven maidens, whom the Athenians were compelled to send to Crete as tribute. Theseus went to Crete 1235, and by the aid of Ariadne, Minos's daughter, destroyed it, and thus delivered his country from the dreadful tax, escaping from the labyrinth by means of a clue of thread. Forgetting, on his return, to change the black flag hoisted on his ship for a white one, which he had agreed to do if successful, he so terrified his father, who was watching the return of the vessel on the cliffs, that, supposing his son had fallen a sacrifice, he threw himself into the sea and perished.

The Seven against Thebes. Œdipus and Jocasta left two sons, Eteocles and Polynices, who agreed that each should reign alternately over Thebes one year. Eteocles, at the close of

his first year, refused to resign his authority, so that Polynices engaged six renowned chieftains to attack with himself the seven gates of the city. The brothers, however, agreed at length to settle the dispute by single combat, wherein both fell 1230. The ashes of the two were said to separate on the burning pile, as if moved by contrary gusts of wind, evincing hostility even after death. Æschylus has a fine tragedy on this subject.

The Nemæan Games revived. They had been originally instituted to commemorate the death of Archemorus, the infant son of Lycurgus, king of Nemæa, in Thrace, whom his nurse had placed on the grass while she went to show the army of Adrastus where they might find a fountain, and whom, on her return, she found bitten by a serpent. Hercules, when he had slain the lion of Nemæa, revived them 1220, ordained that the reward should be a crown of parsley, instead of olive, as before, because the child had been placed amongst that herb, and that it should be bestowed by persons habited in mourning.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Hercules, celebrated for his strength, was intrusted with the dominion of Thebes by Creon, 1220. There were many of this name, but the great actions of all appear to have centred in one. He is particularly famed for the twelve labours, imposed upon him (by permission of Jupiter) by his zealous relative Eurystheus, king of Argos and Mycenæ. Armed by Minerva with a helmet and coat, by Mercury with a sword, by Neptune with a horse, by Jupiter with a shield, by Apollo with a bow and arrows, and by Vulcan with a golden cuirass and brazen buskin, he cut for himself, in the wood of Nemæa, a club, and issued forth undaunted to effect his task: 1. He throttled the lion of Nemæa, which had ravaged round Mycenæ, and ever after wore his skin; 2. he put to death the Lemæan hydra

with one hundred heads; 3. he caught after a year's chase, the stag of Cœnoë, with golden horns and brazen feet; 4. he brought alive to Eurystheus, the wild boar of Erymanthus; 5. he cleansed the stables of Augeas, king of Elis, by turning the course of the river Alpheus through them; in these three thousand oxen had been kept many years; 6. he destroyed the poisonous birds which ravaged the country around lake Stymphalus in Arcadia; 7. he brought alive into Peloponnesus the immense wild bull that had ravaged Crete; 8. he killed Diomedes, the barbarous king of Thrace, who kept a race of mares which fed on human victims; 9. he took away the magic girdle of Hippolyte, queen of the Amazons, in Cappadocia; 10. he killed the monster, Geryon, king of Gades, and brought his flocks, which

fed on human flesh, to Argos; 11. he obtained the golden apples of Hesperides, after killing the dragon that guarded them; 12. he brought up the three-headed dog, Cerberus, by main force, from the region of Pluto. Hercules held sovereign power in various states of Peloponnesus; but his sons were all driven out after his death.

Dædalus, the most ingenious artist of his age, invented the wedge, axe, vimble, level, and the sails of ships. Having slain Talus, his nephew and rival in art, he fled with his son Icarus to Crete, where Minos patronized him, and employed him in constructing a labyrinth. The artist, however, offended the king, and was imprisoned in his own labyrinth, whence he effected his own and his son's escape, by means of wings. Icarus, in

his flight, fell into that part of the ocean, called from him the Icarian sea, but *Dædalus* reached Cumæ in safety, and built a temple there to Apollo.

Rhadamanthus, king of the Cyclades, conquered many cities in Asia Minor; and was so famous for his just rule that, like Minos, he was appointed one of the judges in the realms of Pluto, being especially employed in compelling the dead to confess their crimes, and in awarding their punishment.

Linus, the inventor of melody amongst the Greeks, was born at Thebes, and taught music to Hercules, who, because he ridiculed the hero for his awkwardness in holding the lyre, struck him on the head with the instrument, and killed him.

SECTION VIII.

TOLA, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1209 TO 1183—26 YEARS.

Tola. On the death of Gideon, there was an attempt on the part of his son Abimelech to make the Israelites renounce their theocracy, and acknowledge him for their king; but upon his fall, Tola, who resided in mount Ephraim, had the full direction of the affairs of his people, and for twenty-six years ruled them in peace.

EVENTS.

The insurrection of Abimelech. Abimelech, on the death of his father Gideon, resolved on making himself king of Israel, since neither his wisdom nor integrity were sufficient to entitle him to succeed his parent. Without hesitation he murdered his seventy brothers, all but Jotham, who escaped to Beer. The inhabitants of Shechem raised a force to put down the tyrant, but were defeated, their city entered and destroyed, and the ground strewn with salt, the characteristic curse of desolation practised in those days. Abimelech, however, was less successful at Thebez; for, attempting to take the citadel 1206, a woman cast a milstone upon his head,

and so injured him, that he called upon his armour-bearer to kill him, 'that men might not say a woman slew him.' The parable of Jotham, which he addressed to the men of Shechem, to encourage their attack upon his monstrous brother, is a very elegant specimen of Hebrew allegory.

The Fall of Troy. Peleus, the father of Achilles, when he married Thetis, invited all the celestials but one to his wedding. The excluded one was the goddess of discord, who, in anger, threw among the guests a golden apple, inscribed 'to the fairest!' Each goddess expected to receive the fruit; but Jupiter declared that Juno, Minerva, and Venus should go with Mercury to

mount Ida (in Troy), whereon Paris, son of king Priam, was tending the royal flocks. Paris being commanded to decide which of the three was the most beautiful, pronounced Venus to be so. Juno and Minerva thereupon incited Paris to visit Lacedæmon, and run away with Helen, by which the prince should bring the Greeks in arms against his country. For before Helen had become the wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, her hand had been sought by all the princes of Greece; and to put an end to dispute, the wise Ulysses had proposed that Helen should choose for herself among the suitors, and that the unsuccessful candidates should bind themselves by a solemn league to avenge her cause, should any one attempt her injury. Tyndarus, her father, when she chose Menelaus, brother of Agamemnon, gave up the throne of Sparta to his son-in-law. In process of time, Paris came to Lacedæmon, on pretence of sacrificing to Apollo; and though kindly received by Menelaus, he ungratefully carried off Helen to Troy, during his temporary absence in Crete. The princes of Greece, after demanding her in vain, attacked Troy with 1186 ships and 100,000 men. Agamemnon took the chief command, supported by Achilles, Ajax, Ulysses, Patroclus, Diomedes, Nestor, and others. The king of Troy had Rhesus, king of Thrace, and Memnon, king of Egypt, as allies. The Greek army was weakened first by a plague, and next by a quarrel which ensued between Agamemnon and Achilles, so imperishably recorded by Homer. For ten years the devoted city was unavailingly assailed, during which the most valiant of the Trojans, including Hector, Priam's son, were slain, and the rivers filled with the bodies and armour of the dead. Troy at length fell (according to the poets) by stratagem, in

1184. The Greeks sent a large wooden horse into the city as an offering to Minerva; in its capacious body a number of soldiers had been concealed, who, getting out in the night, opened the gates to their companions. The city was at once sacked, and its inhabitants, together with Priam and his family, put to the sword. A small band, however, led by Æneas, escaped by sea, and became the founders of the Roman empire. Menelaus recovered his queen, and took her back to Lacedæmon. The site of Troy is still covered with broken columns of marble and granite; Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian capitals lie in all directions, some of them of great beauty. A bas-relief of a person on horseback, pursued by a winged figure, and another of Ceres in her car, drawn by two serpents, are especially beautiful. Dr. Clark affirms that the river Mender is the Scamander; that the tomb of Ajax still remains; determines the exact position of the naval station of the Greeks; that the Thymbrius is yet recognised in its present appellation Thymbreck; that the spacious plain on the north-east of the Mender, and watered by the Callifat Osmack, is the Simoisian, and that stream the Simois; that the ruins of Patio Callifat are those of the Ilium of Strabo; that the altars of Jupiter were on the hill at the foot of Gargarus, where the ruins of the temple still are; that the extremity of the Adramyttian gulf inclines round the ridge of Gargarus, towards the north-east, so that the circumstance of Xerxes having this mountain upon his left, in his march from Antandrus to Abydos, is thereby explained: and lastly, that Gargarus affords a view, not only of all the plain of Troy, but of all the district of Troas, and a very considerable portion of the rest of Asia Minor.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Sanconiathon, a Phœnician historian, who wrote a history, in nine books, of the theology and antiquities of Tyre,

translated afterwards into Greek by Philo.

Achilles, son of Peleus and Thetis,

and bravest of all the Greeks in the Trojan war, had been plunged when an infant, by Thetis, into the river Styx, by which every part of his body became invulnerable, excepting the heel held by her hand; and to prevent his going against Troy, his mother sent him in female attire to the court of Lymedea, king of Scyros. Ulysses, however, visited Scyros in the garb of a merchant, and offering both jewels and arms to the ladies of the palace, Achilles chose the arms, and thus discovered himself. He went to the war, but soon quarrelled with Agamemnon respecting the captive Briseis. After a considerable period he was reconciled, and revenged the death of his dear friend Patroclus by killing Hector, Priam's son, and dragging his body, tied to his chariot, three times round the walls of Troy. Paris avenged this indignity to his brother by wounding Achilles in his vulnerable heel, of which wound he died.

The son of Achilles, *Neoptolemus*, was sent for, on the death of his father, upon the declaration of Calchas that Troy could not be taken without his aid. He was the first to enter the wooden horse, and when the city was taken, exercised the greatest barbarity on Priam's family, slaughtering that sovereign, without regard to the sanctity of his place of refuge. He slew *Asyanax*, the son of Hector, and had *Andromache*, the widow of Hector, awarded to him as his captive. With her and *Helenus*, son of Priam, he departed for Greece, and founded a new kingdom in Epirus. He married *Andromache*, as well as *Hermione*, the daughter of Menelaus, although the latter had been promised by her father to *Orestes*. *Hermione*, in the absence of *Neoptolemus* at Delphi, tried to murder *Andromache*, but, failing in her attempt, escaped with *Orestes*, son of Agamemnon, to Sparta; and *Orestes* is said to have then hastened to Delphi, and with his own hand to have slain his rival at the altar. The *Andromache* of Racine

paints this tragic history in very lively colours.

Ulysses, king of Ithaca, married *Penelope*, and pretended to be insane when called upon to go against the Trojans. Sowing salt on the sea-shore, he yoked a horse and a bull together, and began to plough; but *Palamedes* discovered the trick, by placing the hero's infant son, *Telemachus*, before the plough, whereon *Ulysses* changed its track. For his services at Troy, he was rewarded with the arms of Achilles; and after passing through innumerable perils on his return to Ithaca, travels which occupied some years, he found *Penelope* almost in despair as to his safety. She had been assured he was dead; and had agreed to take a new husband out of a host of suitors, when a piece of tapestry she had in hand should be completed; but each night she undid the labours of the previous day. *Ulysses* fell by the hand of his own son *Telegonus*, who slew him ignorantly. The adventures of *Telemachus* are recorded in the excellent work of Fenelon; while his own exploits are handed down to all posterity in the *Odyssey*.

Aeneas, son of Anchises and the goddess *Venus*, married *Creusa*, daughter of Priam, king of Troy, by whom he had *Ascanius*. He behaved with great valour during the Grecian siege; and when Troy was in flames, carried away upon his shoulders his father Anchises, and the statues of his household gods, leading *Ascanius* by the hand, and leaving *Creusa* to follow; but he never saw her more. Setting sail (according to Virgil) for the land of which the oracle had announced that he should be king, he was wrecked on the coast of Africa, and kindly received by *Dido*, queen of Carthage, who wished to marry him. But he pursued his course, and after a voyage of no less than seven years, in which he underwent incredible hardships, he landed in Italy, and was welcomed by *Latinus*, king of the country. That monarch had promised

his beautiful daughter Lavinia to Turnus, a neighbouring sovereign; but Æneas being pleased with her, he resolved on bestowing her upon him, and a war between the Rutuli and Latins ensued, wherein Turnus was slain. Æneas then espoused Lavinia, in whose honour he built Lavinium, and succeeded his father-in-law as king of the Latins.

Agamemnon, king of Argos, was brother of Menelaus, and son of Plisthenes, who was son of Atreus. As Thyestes, his uncle, usurped the throne on the death of his father, he was assisted to regain it by Tyndarus, king of Sparta, whose daughter, Clytemnestra, he married, when Menelaus married her sister Helen. Agamemnon was elected commander-in-chief of the Grecian forces against Troy; and on his return, after its fall, his wife, assisted by her paramour, murdered him.

Circe, daughter of Sol, was famed as a sorceress. Her subjects banished her for the murder of her husband, the prince of Colchis, and she fled to Ææa; where Ulysses, on returning from Troy, visited her, and saw all his companions turned by her potions into swine, on account of their voluptuous conduct. She behaved severely to her rival Scylla, daughter of Typhon, on account of her attachment to Glaucus, a sea-diety, poisoning the fountain in which she bathed; so that she found her body, below the waist, changed into frightful monsters which never ceased barking. Hereupon she threw herself into the sea, and became those rocks between Italy and Sicily which still send forth from their cavities a barking sound. Charybdis was an avaricious woman, whom Jupiter changed into a whirlpool, near Scylla, for stealing the oxen of Hercules. As in former days ships, in attempting to avoid Italian Scylla, often fell a prey to Sicilian Charybdis, the line, 'Incident in Scyllam qui vult vitare Charybdim,' became a proverb, to show that, in our eagerness to avoid one evil, we often fall into a greater.

Memnon, king of Egypt, who, during the Trojan war, assisted Priam his uncle with 10,000 troops. A statue was erected to his memory near the Nile, which every morning at sunrise uttered a melodious sound. The figure, which is of a colossal size, still exists, and is in a sitting posture on the plain of Thebes. Mr. Wilkinson, a recent traveller, ascended to its lap, and discovered therein a stone, which, on being struck with a hammer, emitted a metallic sound, insomuch that those below thought it proceeded from brass. The traveller also observed a square space cut in the block behind, as if to admit a person, who might thus be concealed from the most scrutinous observer in the plain below. Strabo observed that the sound seemed to be occasioned by a *blow*. Cambyeses silenced the head for a time, but the priests continued, for lucre's sake, to keep up the delusion some centuries after.

Ruth. A famine occurring in Israel, Elimelech, a man of Bethlehem, retired with his wife Naomi, and his two sons, into the land of Moab; where his sons married Orpah and Ruth. But after some time he and his sons died; upon which Naomi resolved to return into her own country, and desired her daughters-in-law to remain in Moab, under the care and protection of their own relations. Orpah, with great reluctance and many tears, took leave of her mother, and remained; but Ruth clave unto her, saying, 'Whither thou goest, I will go; thy people shall be my people, and thy God, my God.' Upon their arrival at Bethlehem, Ruth went into the fields of Boaz to glean corn for their food. Boaz, though abounding in riches, was condescending and charitable. Having inquired into the family and circumstances of Ruth, whom he saw gleaning, he commanded the men to let fall some handfuls in her way, contriving, at the same time, to give her a plentiful provision, without the appearance of giving, and to save her that shame and

confusion, which modest people feel upon receiving. Boaz was so charmed with the honest industry of Ruth, and her dutiful affection to Naomi, that he married her; and they had a son called Obed, who was the father of Jesse, and grandfather of David, from whom a direct line the Saviour of the world descended. It has been disputed under what judge Ruth lived, some placing her in Ehud's time: but as she was the great grandmother of David, she may with propriety alone be placed somewhere between the commencement and the end of Tola's rule. The Lavinia of Thomson's Seasons is a paraphrase of Ruth's story.

PERIOD THE THIRD.

From the Fall of Troy to the Foundation of Rome in the Reign of Jotham.

1184 TO 753 B. C.—431 YEARS.

SECTION I.

JAIR, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1184 TO 1161—22 YEARS.

Jair. He was born in Gilead, celebrated amongst ancient writers for its costly and medicinal balsam or balm, and judged Israel twenty-two years. He is represented as having thirty sons, who rode on thirty ass-colts, and had each a city under his government, the thirty cities being called collectively Havoth-jair, or the towns of Jair. The Israelites had but few chariots, and seldom rode on horses: the most honourable men were always mounted on asses, which, in the East, are much higher than ours, and beautifully striped, like the zebra kind.

EVENT.

Settlement of the Trojans in Italy. enabled to provide lands for his followers, and to mingle them with the people of his new ally, 1176. Turnus was killed by Aeneas in single combat; and the latter marrying thereupon the daughter of Latinus, was

SECTION II.

JEPHTHAH, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1161 TO 1155—6 YEARS.

Jephthah. He was a Gileadite, and driven from home by his brethren, because his mother was a woman of base character. When Israel, however, was threatened by the Ammonites, he, being a powerful and warlike man, was called upon by the elders of Gilead to lead the army; and having routed the enemy, and taken twenty of their cities, was acknowledged judge. He had made a rash vow, on going out against the Ammonites, to sacrifice to God whatsoever should come forth of the doors of his house to meet him, if he should return successful. His daughter came out to meet him with timbrels and with dances, and she was his only child; beside her he had neither son nor daughter. And it came to pass when he saw her that he rent

his clothes, and said, Alas, my daughter! thou hast brought me very low, and thou art one of them that trouble me: for I have opened my mouth unto the Lord, and I cannot go back. It has been matter of dispute whether Jephtha really put her to death, as the words, "who did with her according to his vow which he had vowed," have been by some supposed to mean; but there is ground for thinking he simply devoted her to perpetual virginity, which might be considered sufficient sacrifice in times when every woman looked forward to become the mother of the Messiah.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Evander, king of Arcadia, who, for an accidental murder, was obliged to quit Greece for Italy, established himself in that part where Rome was afterwards built, kindly received Hercules when he returned from the conquest of Geryon, and gave Æneas assistance against the Rutuli. He introduced the Greek alphabet and deities amongst the Italians; and his subjects erected an altar to his memory on mount Aventine.

Orestes, son of Agamemnon, slew his mother Clytemnestra, and her paramour Ægisthus, for their murder

of his father. He then fled to the court of his uncle, Strophius, king of Phocis, who educated him with his son Pylades; and the friendship which ensued between the cousins has been regarded as one of the most remarkable in ancient history, each contending at the altar of Diana to die for the other. Orestes killed Pyrrhus, the son of Achilles, in the temple of Apollo, for marrying Hermione, who had been promised him by her grandfather; and ultimately gained his father's kingdom of Argos.

SECTION III.

SAMSON, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1155 to 1135—20 YEARS.

Samson was the son of Manoah, of Dan, and married a Philistine woman contrary to the law. In his way to visit her at Tisimath, a young lion opposed the passage of himself and his parents; but he seized the creature, and tore it to pieces. He soon quarrelled with his Philistine friends, and they deprived him of his wife; whereon he set fire to their corn-fields by tying firebrands to the tails of 300 foxes, and sending them into their lands. The men of Judah, however, gave him up bound to the Philistines; but he broke the cords about his arms as if they had been threads, and seizing the jaw-bone of an ass that lay in his way, he slew therewith 1000 of his oppressors, and escaped to Gaza. While here, he found a party again about to entrap him; but in the night he took up the city-gates, with their posts and bars, and carried them to the top of a neighbouring hill. He was at length, however, betrayed to his enemies by Delilah, a woman of Sorek, whom the lords of the Philistines had bribed with a large sum of money. To her, after vast and cunning entreaty, he revealed that his strength would go from him, if his hair were cut off. Upon her depriving him of the seven locks of his head, the party waiting to seize him were enabled to secure him, and instantly put out his eyes, and made him grind a mill in the prison. In a short period after this event, the chief Philistines assembled to offer sacrifice to Dagon, their idol, and to thank him for delivering Samson into their power. The captive was accordingly brought into the temple to make them sport; and having directed the

who led him, to place him against the pillars of the building, he prayed secretly to God for a return of his strength, that he might then punish the enemies of Israel. Taking suddenly hold of a pillar with either hand, he cried out "Let me die with the Philistines!" and bowing himself with all his might, the house fell upon himself, the lords, and upon all the people that were therein, burying 3000 persons in its ruin.

EVENT.

The founding of Longa Alba. As- which he called Longa Alba, he removed the seat of Lavinium thither, 1152. His descendants reigned at Alba for above 420 years, under fourteen kings, till the age of Numitor.

EMINENT PERSON.

Doris, son of the king of Phthiotis, the city Doris; and his people were called Dorians, an appellation which afterwards spread over a third portion of Greece.

SECTION IV.

ELI, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1135 TO 1120—15 YEARS.

Eli was high priest, and judge over a portion only of the land, forty years; and sole judge, after the death of Samson, for fifteen. He is represented as having loved and honoured God himself, but as not having restrained his sons from wickedness; for which they were allowed to be slain by the Philistines, and the priesthood to pass into another branch of Aaron's family. When news was brought to Eli of the defeat of the people at Ebenezer by the Philistines, with the loss of his two sons Hophni and Phinehas, the sacred ark, and 30,000 men, he fainted; and falling backwards, broke his neck.

EVENTS.

Migration of the Æolians. When the Heraclidæ, or descendants of Hercules, began to revolutionize the Peloponnesus, 1124, pouring in upon it from Thessaly, where they had long resided as exiles, the Æolians, under their king, Æolus (the fabled god of the winds, because he escaped in ships having sails, which were then very rare), fled from the peninsula to Asia Minor; and, uniting with other Pelasgi, who had migrated on a similar account, founded the city Æolis, to which they soon added nearly thirty more towns. The Æolian cities of Cumæ and Lesbos became, in after-times, very famous.

SECTION V.

SAMUEL, JUDGE OF ISRAEL.

1120 TO 1095—25 YEARS.

Samuel was the last of the Israelitish judges, and a prophet also, and was brought up in God's temple at Shiloh, under the especial care of Eli, waiting

on the service of the tabernacle as a Levite, being the first-born and given to God. He was instructed to warn Eli of his coming calamities, although he did so in vain. When the ark of the covenant had been captured by the Philistines, they carried it into the house of their idol Dagon, whereupon the image instantly fell down and broke in pieces; they then removed it from city to city, but every where it smote the inhabitants with sore diseases. Notwithstanding it was placed in a carriage drawn by two milch-kine, whose calves are dependant on them, and shut up at home, the animals conveyed their precious charge back into the land of Israel, of their own accord. Samuel himself now assailed the Philistines, and a storm of thunder and lightning was miraculously afforded him to complete the route of his enemies, who never troubled Israel again during his lifetime. Peace being restored, the prophet travelled yearly through his country to administer justice—but in his old age, he made his sons judges, and they so oppressed and abused the people, that an universal cry arose for a king. Samuel opposed the renunciation of the Theocracy by every argument in his power: but the Israelites were obstinate as usual, and God himself at length directed the prophet to comply with their wish, and resign his office, 1195. Samuel lived nearly to the close of the reign of Saul, acting in his prophetic and monitory character only, and dying at Ramah, 1060.

EVENTS.

Return of the Heraclidæ. After having been frequently driven back, when attempting to gain possession of Mycenæ, and other states to which they laid claim, the descendants of Hercules finally got possession of the whole Peloponnesus, 1104. This period is taken as one of the most important epochs of ancient history.

Founding of Sparta. Eurystheus and Procles, two of the Heraclidæ, founded this famous state, 1102, and ruled together. The country had very early been called Laconia, and the capital was now named both Lacedæmon and Sparta, from a former king

and queen of the country. The people of Sparta were always respectful to the aged. Their menial servants, or slaves were the Helots. The monarchy lasted 883 years, after which its power gradually declined under the lashes of the Thebans and Macedonians, until it was wholly crushed by the Romans. It should be observed, that Sparta had two kings always reigning together, one descended from Procles (the Proclidæ), the other from Eurysthenes (the Eurysthenidæ) from 1102 to 210; in which latter year the usurper Machanidas declared himself sole ruler.

SECTION VI.

THE REIGN OF SAUL, KING OF ISRAEL.

1095 to 1050—40 YEARS.

Saul, selected by Samuel, and anointed by him, had no sooner been proclaimed king of Israel, than the Philistines and others began fresh attacks. Jonathan, Saul's son, was successful against the Philistines; and Saul himself attacked the Amalekites, but lost God's favour by sparing their rebellious king Agag, and saving the best of their flocks and herds, under the pretence of keeping them for sacrifices. A melancholy seized him upon hearing that he should lose his kingdom; and David, son of Jesse, a young shepherd skilled in music, was employed to soothe him with his harp. When the Philistines shortly after dared the men of Israel to combat their gigantic leader, Goliath,

the same David agreed to contend with him in single combat ; and with only a sling in his hand and a few pebble-stones went forward, and, supported by an invisible power, slew the boaster, who had threatened to give David's flesh to the fowls of the air, and to the beasts of the field. A complete victory over the Philistines followed ; but Saul becoming jealous of the notice taken of David, the latter fled to Gath, when informed privately by Jonathan, who affectionately loved him, of his father's secret purpose to slay him. Saul hunted him from place to place, and once actually entered a cave where he was concealed with some followers. His friends earnestly called on David, now that Saul was in his power, to kill the man who was seeking his life ; but he mildly answered, " God forbid that I should stretch forth my hand against the Lord's anointed !" and following the king from the cave, convinced him of the risk he had run, and of his own disinclination to be cruel. Saul felt his situation for the moment, but was soon after in arms to seek David with 3000 men. Escamping at Ziph with his forces, David entered his tent while he slept, and simply took away a spear and a pitcher, as tokens of the king's danger, and of his own innocence of heart. When Saul was apprized of this his second escape, he acknowledged the superior virtue of David, promised not to give him further disturbance, and having blessed him, returned to his own city. The Philistines again attacked Saul after this, and the Israelites were beaten, with the loss of Jonathan and his two brothers, who had command under their father. Saul was wounded with an arrow ; and upon hearing of his children's death, fled to mount Gilboa, and threw himself upon his sword, lest he should fall into the hands of the enemy. The lamentation of David for Saul and his dear friend Jonathan is one of the most pathetic passages with which we meet.

EVENT.

The Death of Codrus. This last king of Athens, being attacked by the Heraclidæ, was informed by an oracle that victory would be granted to the nation whose king was killed in the contest. The Heraclidæ tried to take him alive ; but disguising himself, Codrus attacked one of the enemy, and fell, 1070. Victory ensued ; and the Athenians, in honour to his memory, would no longer be ruled by kings, but appointed nine archons, with a short duration of power, to govern the state. The chief of the nine was called *archon*, the second *basileus*, and each had a particular duty.

SECTION VII.

THE REIGN OF DAVID, KING OF ISRAEL.

1055 to 1015—40 YEARS.

David, who had been privately anointed by Samuel, was directed, upon the death of Saul, to remove to Hebron, where the tribe of Judah acknowledged him for their sovereign. The other tribes, however, proclaimed Ishbosheth, Saul's remaining son, king of Israel at Jerusalem ; and a war of seven years ensued between the parties, which was only put an end to by the murder of Ishbosheth by two of his own captains. The assassins fled to David with the news, thinking to please him ; but he had them put to death ; after which the Saulite party submitted to his authority. Thus undisputed master of Israel, David studied to promote the glory and worship of God, and to discharge the duties of his high station with alacrity and dig-

nity; but good as was his heart naturally, he suffered his passions occasionally to overpower his better principles. Captivated by the beauty of Bathsheba, the wife of Uriah, one of his generals, he caused her husband to be slain, by exposing him in battle, and then married her. The prophet Nathan finely reproved him by his story of the pet-lamb; and the king's repentance thereon was sincere. The last years of David's life were imbibtered by public and private calamities. His son Absalom having in a great degree stolen the affections of his people from his aged father, broke out into open rebellion, and obliged him to flee from Jerusalem: but the rebels were soon defeated, and the young prince, as he fled upon a mule, was caught by his hair in the boughs of a thick oak, and suspended between heaven and earth, till Joab, David's general, slew him. Soon after this and the insurrection of Sheba had been put down, David drew upon him the divine anger by numbering his people, as if distrustful of the Almighty hand; and a pestilence which destroyed 70,000 persons was the consequence. At length the king's end approached; and after urging his son, Solomon, to walk in God's ways, and keep his commandments, he expired at Jerusalem, aged seventy. As a warrior, a poet, a musician, a prophet, and a king, David is one of the most remarkable characters of antiquity. His pieces in the book of Psalms, in addition to their worth as inspired and didactic compositions, are amongst the most elegant specimens of poetry extant. As the lineal descendant of Abraham, and the progenitor of the Saviour, in his human capacity, he was above all men glorious; while his marked inclination to the side of mercy, and abhorrence of revenge, his piety, and his humility, obtained for him the enviable title of 'the man after God's own heart.'

EVENT.

The Ionian Migration. The Ionians (from Ion) of the Peloponnesus, harassed by the Heracids, at length migrated, as the Æolians had done, to Asia Minor, and founded the Ionian states there, twelve in number, of which Ephesus, Smyrna, Miletus, and Samos became the most celebrated. Samos (an island on the coast) was noted for having been the birthplace of Juno, and for her magnificent temple. Pythagoras was also born there. Cræsus made the Ionians, in aftertimes, tributary to Lydia, and they joined Xerxes against the Greeks. Alexander delivered them from the Persian yoke, but Sylla put them under the more en- during one of the Romans. This migration was a prelude to the division of the Greeks into three distinct tribes; the *Æolians*, having for their possession the plain land of Thessaly with Phocis, Bœotia, part of Peloponnesus (Arcadia and the parts near), and their colony in Asia Minor; the *Ionians*, having Attica in Peloponnesus, Megara, Eubœa, and the surrounding islands, with their colony in Asia Minor; and the *Dorians*, who had the mountains of Thessaly, a large portion of Peloponnesus, and the isles to the south of Asia Minor, with those on the coasts of Italy and Sicily. Hence the dialects.

SECTION VIII.

THE REIGN OF SOLOMON, KING OF ISRAEL.

1015 TO 975—40 YEARS.

Solomon, as soon as he was settled firmly in his kingdom (having been compelled to put his brother Adonijah to death, for sedition), applied himself to the management of public affairs. When divinely assured that he should receive

whatever blessing he should ask, he prudently and modestly desired, not riches and honour, but a wise and understanding heart. An opportunity soon offered for the trial of his wisdom; two women, bringing two children, the one dead and the other alive, came to him for justice; both disowned the dead child, both claimed the living one. How could the truth be discovered, and the infants be given to their proper mothers? Solomon had recourse to the workings of nature for the discovery of the secret. He commanded that the child for which they contended with equal warmth should be divided, and half of it given to each woman. One of them was willing to have it so divided; but the other cried out, in despair and agony, that it should not be so; 'O my lord, give her the living child, and by no means slay it!' This affectionate, anxious desire to save the life of the infant, manifested the true mother; and Solomon accordingly gave her the child, to the satisfaction of the whole assembly. His wisdom was no less distinguished in the government of his kingdom, and in many learned treatises which he wrote, upon the nature of plants and trees, and of beasts, birds, and fishes. Peace and plenty were diffused through his dominions; and by his extensive alliances and commerce, gold and silver were brought to him in such abundance, that the riches of the world seemed to have been gathered together in the city of Jerusalem. Having by these means added a vast quantity of materials to those which David had collected, he applied himself to the great work which his father had so much at heart, and built a temple to the Lord. It was the most beautiful and magnificent edifice in the world, and was erected on mount Moriah, where Abraham had offered up his son Isaac, and where God appeared to David when he stopped the pestilence. The grandeur and richness of it exceeded all power of description; and when the ark was deposited in it, a divine light filled the building. The fame of the wisdom and magnificence of this prince spread over the whole earth, and drew many persons of wealth and learning from distant nations to his court. Particularly the queen of Sheba, a princess as remarkable for understanding as for power and riches, came from the farthest part of the south to see his glory, and be an ear-witness of his wisdom. Solomon, however, so beloved of God, and so admired by men, did not persevere in virtue; but, strange to say, fell towards the close of his life into idolatry. He took wives out of those nations with which God had commanded the Israelites not to make any alliance; and these drew him from the service of the true God, to bow down to the false deities of the Ammonites. He was punished, however, by the assurance from Abijah, the prophet, that his successor should be deprived of ten of the tribes; and his repentance is evinced by his book of Ecclesiastes, wherein he well describes the vanity of every earthly labour and enjoyment, and enjoins the fear of God, and the observance of his laws, as the only means of happiness. Solomon was fifty-eight when he died.—He was author of the Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Canticles, to which some add the book of Wisdom. He must have been highly renowned amongst kings, if we simply remark the manner in which his actions have been recorded by all eastern writers, Arabs, Persians, Moguls, and even Chinese; and the mere circumstance of his having built Tadmor or Palmyra, a city ten miles in circumference, as an intermediate station for carrying on an intercourse with India, besides other large towns for similar purposes, would show him to have been one of the most enterprising and wealthy of monarchs.

EMINENT PERSON.

Hiram, king of Tyre or Phœnicia, throne, he sent an embassy to congratulate him. Solomon soon after applied to him for cedar-wood, fir-wood,

and stone, for the construction of the temple, which Hiram sent down on floats from Lebanon to the port nearest Jerusalem. The Phœnicians were then what the Venetians were afterwards, and the English are now—the first commercial people in the world. No less than 150,000 of Solomon's people were employed in assisting Hiram's workmen, to hew the timber, and raise and cut the required quantity of stone.

SECTION IX.

REHOBAM, KING OF JUDAH.

975 to 958—17 YEARS.

Rehoboam. Solomon's bones had scarcely been committed to the tomb, when the people called upon his son and successor Rehoboam, at Shechem, to lighten the burdens which his father had placed on them. The old counselors, who were experienced in the affairs of the nations, advised him to give a kind and gentle answer, that he might secure the affections of the people, and establish himself firmly upon the throne; but the advice of his young, giddy companions seemed, in his vain imagination, more agreeable to the dignity of his government; and therefore, instead of soothing his subjects and promising redress, he threatened to increase their burdens, and govern them with greater severity than his father had done. Ten of the tribes were so offended at this harsh answer, that they disclaimed all allegiance to him; and made Jeroboam, a bold ambitious youth, king over them. The other two tribes, Judah and Benjamin, adhered to Rehoboam, and conveyed him safely to Jerusalem; so that, in the emphatic words of scripture, 'there was war between Rehoboam and Jeroboam all their days.' Thus Israel, which was just rising into fame, was divided into two parts, the kingdom of Judah and the kingdom of Israel. Rehoboam raised a large army to reduce the revolted tribes; but was prevented from marching against them by the prophet Shemaiah, who informed him that the division of the kingdom took place by divine appointment. He soon gave himself up to idolatry, in which he was too readily followed by his subjects; and at length the Egyptians, under Shishak, entered Jerusalem, and spoiled the temple and the palace of their treasures; so that Rehoboam left the state much impoverished at his death.

EVENT.

Jeroboam's Revolt. This person was son of Nebat, one of Solomon's officers, and had been made superintendent of the revenues of the tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh for his bravery. On being declared king by the ten tribes, Jeroboam beautified Shechem for his capital, and built a palace there; and fearing lest the people, if they went at the public festivals to worship God at Jerusalem, according to the law, should be induced to dwell there, and become subjects of the king of Judah, he set up two golden calves as gods in different parts of his kingdom. He also took upon himself the office of high-priest, and appointed the lowest of the people to be priests of the polluted high-places. But as he was about to offer sacrifices at Bethel, a prophet from Jerusalem declared that the altar should be destroyed by a king of Judah named Josiah, a prophecy which was fulfilled 340 years afterwards: and when Jeroboam, being angry, stretched forth his hand to apprehend him, it became withered; yet, upon his humiliation, it was restored to him. He was not, however, reclaimed by this wonderful event, so that the prophet Ahijah was instructed to tell him that his sick child should

die, and that his other descendants should meet with violent deaths. The prophet who foretold the invasion of Josiah, was he who was drawn aside to eat with the old prophet of Bethel, in Israel; and who thus having disobeyed the express injunction of God, was allowed to be destroyed by a lion that met him in the way.

SECTION X.

ABIJAH, KING OF JUDAH.

958 TO 955—3 YEARS.

Abijah. The short reign of this prince was in most respects a vicious one; but he was permitted to rule for the sake of his ancestor David, 'who turned not away from any thing that God commanded him all the days of his life, save only in the matter of Uriah the Hittite.' When Jeroboam warred against him, Abijah reproved him for his departure from God's worship; and when this increased the fury of the Israelites, and made them commence the fight, Abijah, calling upon Heaven for aid, slew 500,000 of them.

EMINENT PERSON.

Sessa, a philosopher of India, who invented chess. When he presented his invention to Scheran, that monarch desired him to ask whatsoever he pleased. Sessa asked only a grain of wheat to cover the first square of the chess-board, two for the second, four for the third, and so on progressively through the sixty-four squares. The king regarded his request as unworthy his merit; but the philosopher persisted in his wish, and when the numeration began to be made, it soon appeared how difficult it would be to grant it since all the granaries of the kingdom contained not wheat enough to satisfy the demand. The king, still more pleased with the philosopher, conferred on him the highest honours.

SECTION XI.

ASA, KING OF JUDAH.

955 TO 914—41 YEARS.

Asa, son of Abijah, reformed the country, and put away idolatry, depriving even his mother of her dignity as queen, because she persisted in having an idol in a grove, which he burned by the brook Kedron. The Arabians (called Ethiopians) under their king Zerah, having advanced towards Jerusalem with a million of men, Asa met them with 300,000, and totally defeated them at Mareslah, having, before he commenced battle, said aloud, praying, 'Lord it is nothing with thee to help, whether with many, or with them that have no power: help us, O Lord our God, for we rest on thee, and in thy name we go against this multitude. O Lord, thou art our God; let not man prevail against thee.' Great spoil was obtained from the Arabs, and Asa now turned his attention to Baasha king of Israel, who had fortified Ramah, a frontier town, as if about to war with Judea. Asa hereupon applied to Benhadad, the heathen king of Syria, at Damascus, and received from him such promises of support, that Baasha gave up his project; and Asa seizing the materials of the fortifications, built towns with them, and henceforth reigned in security.

Asa died of the gout, 'and they buried him in his own sepulchre, which he had made for himself in the city of David, and laid him in the bed which was filled with sweet odours, and divers kinds of spices, prepared by the apothecaries' art; and they made a very great burning for him.'

EVENTS.

Israel under Nadab, Baasha, Elah, and Omri. Nadab succeeded his father Jeroboam, but barely reigned two years. Baasha, son of Ahijah, of the house of Issachar, dethroned and slew him, 952, and was proclaimed king at Tirzah. Baasha then seized upon all the house of Jeroboam within his reach, and put them to death, fulfilling thus the prophecy of Ahijah of Shiloh; but as he afterwards fell into idolatry and other enormities himself, the prophet Jehu was sent to denounce the same curse against him, that he had executed on the house of Jeroboam. Elah his son succeeded him, 930; but, by the direction of Jehu, Zimri, captain of the chariots, slew him while revelling at a banquet given by Arza, steward of his household, at Tirza, and

declared himself king, 729. Zimri also put to death the rest of the house of Baasha; but in a week he was set upon in turn by the people under Omri, because of his murder of the royal family. Finding no means of escape from the fury of his assailants, he set fire to the palace at Tirzah, and burned it over his head, with himself and all his treasures. Omri was then declared king; and after residing six years at Tirzah, he purchased a hill of one Shemer (as the capital in ancient times was usually seated upon a hill), whereon he built a city which he named, after the former owner of the ground, Shemeron, or, as we translate it, Samaria; and this became henceforward the capital of the Israelitish monarchs.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Bacchis, king of Corinth, who succeeded his father Prumnides, and ruled with so much equity, that all his successors were called Bacchidæ in compliment to his memory. The descendants of this immediate family so rapidly increased as to induce them to appoint one as a ruler, and for nearly

300 years this *imperium in imperio* lasted, when Cypselus overturned it, by declaring himself absolute.

Megacles, archon of Athens. He punished with extreme severity the insurrection and sacrilege of Cylon, involving almost all the great of Athens in his ruin.

SECTION XII.

JEHOSHAPHAT, KING OF JUDAH.

914 TO 889—25 YEARS.

Jehoshaphat, the son of Asa, began his reign with the destruction of idolatry; and sent priests through the country to instruct the people in their duty. He erred in marrying his son Jehoram to Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab, the idolatrous king of Israel, and in making an alliance with him against the king of Syria; but endeavoured to repair his fault by a more fervent zeal for divine worship, and a stricter administration of justice. Therefore when the Ammonites and Moabites invaded his dominions, the Lord spread a terror among them, so that, mistaking one another for enemies, they carried on a mutual slaughter, till both armies were destroyed; after which Jehoshaphat ended his days in peace.

EVENTS.

Israel under Ahab, Ahaziah, and Jereboam. Ahab had been four years on the throne, when Jehoshaphat became king of Judah ; and he is said to have done still greater evil than any of his predecessors. He married Jezebel, the daughter of Ethbaal, king of the Sidonians, a proud and cruel woman; and by her persuasion and influence, built an altar to Baal in Samaria, and made a grove for superstitious and impure worship. The prophet Elijah reproved him for his idolatry, and convinced him of the absurdity of his trust in Baal, by proposing that the priests of the pretended god should offer sacrifice on one altar to Baal, while he should do the same on another to the God of Israel. The priests of Baal immediately put a bullock upon their altar, and called upon Baal from morning to noon ; but there was no voice to answer, nor any that regarded. But when Elijah had put a bullock upon his altar, and entreated the Almighty to show that he was the Lord God, a fire came down from heaven and consumed the sacrifice. The people were at once astonished and convinced, and at the command of the prophet, seized the false priests, and carried them to the brook Kishon, where they put them to death. Ahab, however, persisted in his wicked courses ; and looking with a covetous eye upon the vineyard of Naboth, which joined his palace, he contrived, with Jezebel, by a false accusation, to have the poor man stoned to death, and then took possession of the field. Nothing can be finer than the scriptural narrative of the mode in which the punishment of this most barbarous action followed. Elijah conveys the sentence of an angry God to him, while standing in his ill-gotten vineyard. 'In the place where dogs licked the blood of Naboth, shall dogs lick thy blood, even thine!' 'Hast thou found me, O mine enemy?' exclaimed the conscience-struck Ahab. 'I have found thee,' returned Elijah; and he closes his awful denunciation with the assurance 'that the dogs should eat

Jezebel by the wall of Jezreel.' Judah and Israel were then living in amity, and in 897 king Jehoshaphat came to Samaria on a visit to Ahab. While together, the latter proposed that the two kingdoms should unite to take Ramoth in Gilead from the king of Syria, as it had formerly belonged to the Israelites. But before setting out, the two monarchs, each on his throne, and royally arrayed, sat at the gate of Samaria to hear what the prophets would say as to the issue. All of them, until it came to Micaiah's turn, affirmed that it would be prosperous : but he declaring that Ahab should fall at Ramoth-gilead, Ahab ordered him to prison, until he should return from the fight in peace. Micaiah replied, 'If thou return at all in peace, the Lord hath not spoken by me.' The kings therefore went to meet the Syrian monarch, who had given orders to his chief officers 'to fight neither with small nor great, save only with the king of Israel.' Now Ahab said to Jehoshaphat, 'I will disguise myself, and enter into the battle ; but put thou on thy robes,' and thus they joined their troops, riding together in a chariot. The Syrians, recognising the king of Judah, refrained from injuring him ; but a marksman, suspecting his companion to be Ahab, shot him with an arrow in the breast, so that he died ; and being brought back in the chariot to Samaria for burial, the dogs licked up the pool of blood that had flowed from the wound upon the floor, as had been predicted by Elijah. Ahaziah, his son, reigned but one year, and was also an idolater. He fell from a chamber-window of his palace, and died in consequence. After the accident, he sent messengers to Baal-zebub (god of flies) the god of Ekron, to inquire whether he should recover ; and Elijah meeting the embassy, directed the men to go back, and tell their master, that he should surely die for asking such a question of any but the true God. Ahaziah, on this, sent a captain and fifty men to seize Elijah,

and bring him into his presence : but the prophet, when they approached the hill whereon he dwelt, called down fire from heaven, and consumed them. A second company was in like manner destroyed. The captain of a third, however, begged for his own and his men's lives, and Elijah accompanied them to the king, and himself declared that he should not rise again from his bed. *Joram*, another son of Ahab, succeeded 896, and was a wicked prince, but not so profane as his father and brother ; for he removed the image of Baal, after which, having procured the friendship of Jehoshaphat, he overthrew the Moabites. But vengeance had been denounced against the remnant of Ahab : and Jehu, having been declared king of Israel by Elisha, 884, proceeded to execute his commission. Joram had just returned from a conflict with Hazael, king of Syria, and having received a wound, had halted at Jezreel, to consult his physicians : thither Ahaziah, king of Judah, had come to inquire after the health of his ally. The two monarchs appear to have been ignorant of Jehu's conspiracy ; as the warder of the fortress announced, to their surprise, that a company of strangers was approaching. Two messengers were sent out at intervals to inquire if peace were intended ? but as neither of them returned to tell, Joram and Ahaziah hurried off, each in his chariot, to meet the intruders,

and came up to them in the space of ground which had been taken so unjustly from Naboth. Joram, recognising Jehu, cried out 'Is it peace, Jehu?' but receiving an hostile reply, he turned his chariot to flee ; when Jehu shot him with an arrow through the centre of his body, and ordered his captain, Bedkar, to cast the dying king upon the spot where Naboth had been killed by Ahab. Ahaziah then fled ; but Jehu ordered him also to be pursued, and he was in the same way put to death, and his remains conveyed to Jerusalem for burial. Meanwhile Jehu entered Jezreel ; and coming to the palace, saw Jezebel, gaily attired, looking out of a window. It must be presumed that what had already passed had become known in the city ; for upon Jehu's calling out to two or three eunuchs who were also regarding him from the windows, 'to throw her down,' they instantly obeyed, and her body was dashed to pieces on the ground, sprinkling the horses of Jehu's party with its blood. In a short space of time, dogs rushed upon the mangled remains, and eat all up but 'the skull, the feet, and the palms of the hands.' On the next day Jehu sent orders for the heads of the seventy descendants of Ahab, who were in Samaria ; and he slew 'all his great men, and his kinsfolks, and his priests, until he left none remaining.'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Elijah. This illustrious prophet began his ministry 910. We are not informed of his parentage, education, or previous manner of life. He is called the Tishbite or *converter*. He foretold a grievous famine ; let Ahab know that God was displeased with him for his idolatry, and would chastise his land by the want of rain ; when persecuted by that king and the furious Jezebel, and compelled to hide himself from their rage, ravens were appointed to bring him meat for above a year ; when sent, because of the drying up of the brook, to the widow of

Sarepta for support, that confiding woman having scarcely wherewith to maintain herself, he increased her handful of meal, so that it wasted not, and her cruise of oil, so that it never failed. Incomparably beyond this, when deprived of her son by death, he raised him again to life. The period having arrived, 896, when he was to be removed, without dying, to heaven, Elijah passed with Elisha through Bethel and Jericho to the river Jordan, announcing to the sons of the prophets as they went, that which was about to happen. On reaching the river, Elijah

divided the water with his mantle, and the two crossed while fifty persons stood looking on. And as the two still went on and talked, there suddenly appeared a chariot and horses of fire, which parted them asunder, carrying up Elijah, as in a whirlwind. The mantle of the prophet fell as he ascended, and Elisha taking it up, divided Jordan again, and returned dry-footed to the side he had left, in the presence of the same fifty persons of Jericho.

Homer, the most sublime of the heathen poets, flourished 907. Seven cities disputed the honour of his birth, 'Smyrna, Chios, Colophon, Salamis, Rhodos, Argos, Athenæ;' but *Herodotus* gives the palm to Smyrna. He had a school there; but accompanying *Mentes*, a rich merchant, on his travels, was compelled to stop in Ithaca, on account of an inflammation in his eyes. Here he amused himself by collecting traditions respecting *Ulysses*, its king 300 years before; and his *Odyssey* was the result. He returned to Smyrna bereft of sight, and was driven for a time to obtain his bread by reciting verses; but he regained it afterwards sufficiently to keep a school at Chios, where he wrote the *Iliad*. He died, when on his way to Athens, at Cos. His verses were never brought into the form of a book until the time of *Pisistratus*; being orally passed in detached rhapsodies or cantos, from father to son, as *Macpherson* asserts the poems of *Ossian* to have been. He who wishes to have as fair a notion of the simplicity, dignity, and peculiarities of this author as our language will permit, should cast away paraphrases, and read the literal translation of an anonymous graduate of Oxford.

Elisha had been originally called from the plough to assist *Elijah*. On succeeding him 896, he laboured in the great work of reforming the rebellious Israelites, and his principal miracles were ten: 1. Cure of the unwholesome water near Jericho, by casting salt into it; 2. destruction of forty-two children by bears for mocking

him; 3. supplying the three armies of Edom, Judah, and Israel, with water in a time of drought; 4. increasing the widow's pot of oil; 5. raising the Shunamite woman's son from the dead; 6. healing the leprosy of *Naaman*; 7. and giving it to the lying *Gehazi*; 8. making an iron axe-head to float on the waters; 9. telling the intentions of the king of Syria to the king of Israel, and smiting the army of the former with blindness; 10. foretelling vast plenty on the morrow, in the midst of a siege and famine in Samaria. He aided the Israelites constantly against the Syrians by his counsel, and died in Samaria 838. Some time after his burial, when a corpse was put into the same tomb and touched his bones, it was restored to life.

Hesiod, a famous poet of *Bœotia*, was the rival of *Homer*, a priest in the temple of the Muses, and the first who wrote on agriculture, in a poem called the 'works and the days.' His *theogony*, though without order, gives a valuable account of the gods of antiquity. He was murdered by the sons of *Ganyctor*, and his body thrown into the sea; but some dolphins bringing it ashore, the poet's dogs discovered the assassins, and they were ordered to be drowned.

Naaman, chief officer of *Benhadad II.*, king of Syria, being afflicted with leprosy, a disease which, in eastern countries, is both loathsome and painful, was advised by his wife to make a journey to Samaria, where, she was assured by her little Hebrew maid, who had been taken captive in the war with the Israelites, there dwelt a prophet that could cure him. 'Would God (said she to her mistress) my lord were with the prophet that is in Samaria! for he would recover him of his leprosy.' When *Naaman* mentioned his wish to *Benhadad*, that monarch said, 'Go, and I will send a letter to the king of Israel. And *Naaman* departed, and took with him ten talents of silver, and 6000 pieces of gold, and ten changes of raiment. And he

brought the letter to the king of Israel, which said, 'Now when this letter is come unto thee, behold I have therewith sent Naaman, my servant, to thee, that thou mayest recover him of his leprosy.' And it came to pass, when the king of Israel had read the letter, that he rent his clothes, and said, 'Am I God, to kill and to make alive, that this man doth send unto me to recover a man of his leprosy? wherefore consider, I pray you, and see how he seeketh a quarrel against me.' When Elisha heard that the king had been disturbed by the Syrian monarch's letter, he requested that Naaman might come to him, as he would convince him there was a prophet in Israel. So Naaman came, with his horses and with his chariot, and stood at the door of the house of Elisha. And Elisha sent a messenger unto him, saying, 'Go and wash in Jordan seven times, and thy flesh shall come again to thee and thou shalt be clean.' But Naaman was wroth, and went away, and said, 'Behold, I thought he would surely come out to me, and stand and call upon the name of the Lord his God, and strike his hand over the place, and recover the leper. Are not Abana and Pharpar, rivers of Damascus, better than all the waters of Israel? May I not wash in *them*, and be clean?' So he turned away in a rage. The attendants of the Syrian general now ventured to expostulate with him; and having pointed out that he had journeyed from Damascus, with full reliance on the power of the prophet, induced him to comply with the command. Then went he down, and dipped himself seven times in Jordan, according to the saying of the man of God: and his flesh came again like unto the flesh of a little child, and he was clean. Overjoyed at the issue, Naaman, and all his company, with their chariots and horses, returned towards the house of Elisha, and were met by the prophet. 'Behold, now I know,' exclaimed Naaman, 'that there is no God in all the earth, but in Israel; now, therefore, I pray thee, take a blessing of thy servant.' The blessing consisted of

sumptuous presents, gold and silver, and changes of raiment, which he had brought with him from Damascus. Elisha refused them all. 'As the Lord liveth,' said he, 'before whom I stand, I will receive none.' And he urged him to take it; but he refused. After Naaman had expressed to the prophet his regret that he must, on his return to Syria, attend the king when worshipping the idol Rimmon, Elisha took his leave of him with the words 'Go in peace;' and the Syrians departing homewards, the prophet returned to his own house. Gehazi, however, the servant of Elisha, had heard the conversation between his master and Naaman, and saw no reason why the household of the prophet should lose its gain. When the chariot of the Syrian had proceeded a little way, he pursued it; and when Naaman saw him running after him, he lighted down from the chariot to meet him, and said, 'Is all well?' And he said, 'All is well. My master hath sent me saying, Behold, even now there be come to me from mount Ephraim, two young men of the sons of the prophets: give them, I pray thee, a talent of silver and two changes of garments.' And Naaman said, 'Be content, take two talents.' And he urged him and bound two talents of silver in two bags, with two changes of garments, and laid them upon two of his servants, and they bare them before him. And when Gehazi came to the house of his master, he took them from their hand, and the men departed. And he went in and stood before his master. And Elisha said unto him, 'Whence comest thou, Gehazi?' And he said, 'Thy servant went no whither.' And he said unto him, 'Went not mine heart with thee, when the man turned again from his chariot to meet thee? Is it a time to receive money, and to receive garments, and oliveyards and vineyards, and sheep and oxen, and menservants and maid-servants? The leprosy therefore of Naaman shall cleave unto thee, and unto thy seed for ever.' And he went from his presence a leper as white as snow.

SECTION XIII.

THE REIGNS OF JEHORAM, AHAZIAH, AND ATHALIAH,
IN JUDAH.

889 to 877—12 YEARS.

Jehoram was taken for four years by *Jehoshaphat*, his father, as joint ruler of Judah; and on the death of his parent, being jealous because his six brothers had been presented by him with 'great gifts of silver, and of gold, and of precious things, with fenced cities in Judah,' he most wickedly put them all to death. Incited by his wife, who was a daughter of *Ahab*, he established the worship of *Baal*; but his short reign was constantly disturbed by the incursions of the *Edomites* and *Philistines*, who even plundered *Jerusalem*. *Jehoram* just at this period was attacked with a disorder of the bowels, and died 885. *Ahaziah*, his son, succeeded, and entered into a strict friendship with *Joram*, king of *Israel*, as has been shown; him *Jehu* slew with *Joram*, 884, as being a grandson of *Ahab*. *Athaliah*, mother of *Ahaziah*, an ambitious woman, when she heard of her son's death, slew all his children, save *Joash*, whom his aunt *Jehoshabeath*, the wife of *Jehoida*, the high-priest, hid with his wet-nurse in a bedchamber, and whom the cruel grandmother supposed murdered. For six years *Athaliah* had ruled over Judah, and filled the kingdom with bloodshed and impieties, when *Jehoida*, aided by the soldiery, proclaimed *Joash* king at the altar in the temple. *Athaliah*, hearing the people shout, 'God save the king,' hurried to the temple, and seeing the armed crowd bringing out the young prince, with a crown on his head, she exclaimed, 'Treason!' and, turning back, was cut down as she reached one of the palace gates. This happened 878, in the seventh year of her reign, during which time *Jehu* still reigned in *Israel*. The *Athaliah* of *Racine* is one of his finest tragedies.

EVENT.

Lycurgus's Laws promulgated. *Lycurgus* was rightful heir of his brother *Polydectes*, king of *Sparta*; but he would only keep the throne till his nephew, *Charilaus*, was of age. On quitting *Sparta*, in consequence of the malevolence of enemies, the public affairs were thrown into such disorder, that he was universally entreated to return. He did so; and having consulted the oracle at *Delphi*, drew up his celebrated code of laws, 884. He was the first to compose what we should call a house of lords; that is, a senate of twenty-eight men of talent and influence, who might maintain a due and just equilibrium between the king and the people. He equally divided lands, abolished the use of money, forbade commerce with other states, and instituted a public plan of education of the most hardy kind. Youth were taught early to think, to answer questions in few words, to excel in repartee, and to bear pain and privation of every kind with equanimity. Having seen his laws put in force, and obliged the people to swear that they would never suffer them to be altered, *Lycurgus* retired to *Delphi*; and there, according to the heathen practice, put an end to his existence. For 700 years his code remained in full force, and the *Lacedæmonians* instituted the yearly festival of *Lycurgidæ* in his memory. Concise speaking amongst moderns has been, from its *Laconian* origin, called *laconic*.

SECTION XIV.

JOASH, KING OF JUDAH.

877 TO 837—40 YEARS.

Joash was but seven when placed upon the throne of his fathers; and the early part of his reign was singularly correct, through the influence of the excellent *Jehoida*. He repaired the temple at great cost, enforced the worship of the true God, and made the people think that the days of David and Solomon were about to return. But after *Jehoida's* death, the princes of Judah seduced the king to introduce their favourite Baal and his grove-sacrifices again; and when *Zechariah*, *Jehoida's* son, remonstrated with *Joash*, he impiously commanded him to be stoned to death! 'Thus (say the Scriptures, in beautiful simplicity of narration) *Joash*, the king, remembered not the kindness which *Jehoida* his father had done to him, but slew his son.' The Syrians instantly after overran Judah, even to the gates of Jerusalem, which they plundered; and having put to death all the princes of the people, carried off their spoils to Damascus. The enemy had scarcely quitted the city, when his own officers, to avenge the death of *Zechariah*, slew *Joash* in his bed, 837.

EVENTS.

Israel under Jehu, and Jehoahaz. *Jehu*, after his destruction of the house of Ahab, rested not until he had also cut off the priests of Baal. Collecting all the priests, and as many as the temple would hold of the worshippers, *Jehu* affected to join in making an offering to the idol: but when the ceremony was over, eighty soldiers, who had surrounded the building, rushed into the place, and slew the idolaters a man. But, though thus anxious to fulfil the letter of his directions, to destroy Ahab and Baal, he went no farther, but continued the idolatry of the calves in Bethel and in Dan. From the circumstance of the warder on the watch-tower having concluded the approaching party to be *Jehu* and his followers, on account of their speed,—'the driving is like the driving of *Jehu* the son of Nimshi; for he driveth furiously,'—the appellation of *Jehu* has been given in modern times to such as are noted for rapid driving. *Jehoahaz* succeeded his father *Jehu*, 856, but appears to have taken no pains to put down the calf-worship. His reign was disturbed by the inva-

sion of Hazael, the Syrian king, who so terribly depopulated Israel, that he left *Jehoahaz* but 10,000 foot-soldiers, and a few chariots; and Benhadad the new king was on the point of utterly destroying that remnant, when *Jehoahaz* died, after a reign of nearly sixteen years, 859, at which moment *Elisha*, the now aged and dying prophet, restored the hopes of the Israelites.

Foundation of Carthage. *Dido-Elissa*, daughter of Belus, king of Tyre, had married *Sichæus*, the wealthy priest of Hercules. *Pygmalion*, the successor of Belus, to obtain the riches of the priest, secretly murdered him; and when *Dido* had ascertained the dreadful fact, she fled with the whole property of her husband to Africa, and purchased of the barbaric inhabitants as much land as a bull's hide would cover, 870. The hide was cut into strips, and the space it thus enclosed having been considered a fair purchase, she built thereon a citadel, to which she gave the name of *Bur-a* (a hide). The increase of population, and the rising commerce amongst her subjects, soon obliged

her to enlarge the boundaries of her dominion. Her beauty, as well as the fame of her enterprise, gained her many admirers, and her subjects wished her to marry Tarbas, king of Mauritania, who threatened them with a dreadful war. Dido begged three months for consideration; and during that time, she erected a funeral pile, as if wishing, by a solemn sacrifice,

to appease the manes of Sichæus, to whom she had promised eternal fidelity. When all was prepared, she stabbed herself in the presence of her people, and by this action obtained the name of Dido (valiant) in addition to that of Elissa. Virgil and Ovid, by a fiction which they thought justifiable, have made Dido contemporary with Æneas.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Jonah, a prophet of Gath-hepher, being directed by God to preach repentance to the people of Nineveh, endeavoured to evade the task; and, escaping in a ship bound to Tarshish, in modern Spain, the sailors in a storm threw him overboard, and the tempest ceased. He was swallowed by a large fish (probably a shark) and miraculously preserved in the body of the animal for three days; after which he

was cast ashore and went to convert the Ninevites. Jonah's gourd, under which he took shelter from the heat, is supposed to have been the palmar-christi, which in the East springs rapidly, and has a great deal of foliage productive of extraordinary coolness. Jonah died 870.

Phidon, king of Argos, invented scales and measures and coined silver first at Ægina, where he died 854.

SECTION XV.

AMAZIAH, KING OF JUDAH.

837 TO 809—28 YEARS.

Amaziah succeeded Joash his father, and began his reign by putting to death his murderers. The Edomites rising against him, he hired for 100 talents of silver 100,000 'mighty men of valour,' of Jehoash, king of Israel; and was on his way to attack his enemies when directed by a prophet to dismiss the Israelites from his army, or he would be defeated. Though he had paid the 100 talents, he consented to lose them rather than victory, and gained a most decisive one over the Edomites, 10,000 of whom he killed on the field, and another 10,000 (captives), by throwing them down from a rock. Meanwhile the Israelitish hirelings, when disappointed of their engagement, fell upon various cities of Judah, carrying away the spoil; and when Amaziah returned from his conquest, he defied Jehoash, and called upon him to bring forth his troops and fight. It must here be observed that Amaziah had become a worshipper of the idols of Edom, during his short stay in their land. Jehoash accordingly met the king of Judah at Beth-shemesh, and not only routed his army, but took him prisoner, and plundered Jerusalem in his presence. He then returned with all the treasures of the temple to Samaria; having given liberty to Amaziah, who was thereupon murdered by his officers.

EVENTS.

Israel under Jehoash and Jeroboam. Jehoash, on succeeding Jehoahaz his father, 839, was happy in having

Elisha still numbered amongst his people. That venerable prophet was, however, on his deathbed; and Jeho-

ash visited him to tell the sad state of the kingdom. Elisha, when Jehoash wept, directed him to take a bow and arrows that were in the chamber, and, having opened the window looking eastward, to shoot. The king did so; and the prophet then desired him to take the remaining arrows in his hand and smite the floor. He complied in this also; and struck the ground three times. Elisha, with some degree of warmth, rebuked him for not having 'smitten five or six times,' declaring that his smittings of Syria should have been as numerous, even to its destruction. The interview thus terminated, and Elisha died. It has been before stated that Benhadad (the third of that name), king of Syria, was on the point of making Israel a dependant state, when the father of Jehoash died: Jehoash, encouraged by the words of the dying prophet, attacked the Syrian forces with vigour, and defeated them; a second and a third time he did the same, recovering all the cities which Hazael had taken in the former wars. Soon after his conquest of Amaziah, king of Judah, he died at Samaria 824. *Jeroboam II.*, his son, exerted himself

to recover the towns that had been gradually taken from Israel by various petty kings, from Libanus on the north, to the Dead sea on the south; and his attempt succeeding, he also took Damascus the capital of Syria, which had formerly belonged to Judah. He could not refrain from idolatry; and died, after a reign of nearly forty-one years, 784.

Kingdom of Babylon founded 820; but the state is more correctly called Chaldea.

Kingdom of Media founded 820. Media is now the province of Ghilan in Persia.

Foundation of Macedon. Caranus, one of the Heraclidæ, founded the kingdom 814, which Philip and Alexander, in aftertimes, rendered so formidable and so famous. A portion of the country is now called Rumelia, wherein is the modern Constantinople. The Macedonian phalanx was a square battalion of 8000 men, having their shields properly arranged, and their pikes crossed, so as to represent to the enemy a formidable barrier; to which the square in our own military tactics bears considerable resemblance.

EMINENT PERSON.

Sardanapalus, the fortieth and last king of integral Assyria, was noted for his effeminacy; he would even wear female attire, and weave. Arsaces conspired against him 820, and with Belesis and other generals, besieged him two years in Nineveh; when, despairing of escape, the monarch set fire to his palace, and fell a sacrifice, with his wives, eunuchs, and treasures. Arsaces instantly divided the empire into three parts, declaring himself supreme ruler, and making

Ecbatana, in Media, his place of residence. Belesis was appointed governor of Chaldea, with Babylon as his capital; and Phul governor of Assyria, in its diminished state, with Nineveh as his chief city. Before the death of Arsaces both these governors declared themselves independent; so that the three distinct kingdoms of Assyria, Media, and Chaldea (or Babylon), existed till 610, when Cyaxares and Nabopolassar divided Assyria between them.

SECTION XVI.

UZZIAH (OR AZARIAH), KING OF JUDAH.

809 TO 758—51 YEARS.

Uzziah was only sixteen when he succeeded his father, Amaziah. He commenced his reign with great wisdom and goodness, and was blessed with suc-

cess against the neighbouring nations. He repaired and fortified Jerusalem, built towers in the desert, and constructed wells which remain to this day. 'He had much cattle both in the low country, and in the plains: husbandmen also, and vine-dressers in the mountains, and in Carmel; for he loved husbandry.' He had, moreover, a prodigious army; the officers amounted to 2600, and the men to 307,500, every common soldier having a shield, spear, helmet, habergeon, bow, and sling. 'And he made in Jerusalem engines, invented by cunning men, to be on the towers and upon the bulwarks, to shoot arrows and great stones withal. And his name spread far abroad.' But prosperity appears to have corrupted the heart of this otherwise great king; for, elated with pride, he usurped the priest's office, and offered to burn incense in the temple, 765. 'And Azariah the priest went in after him, and with him fourscore priests of the Lord, that were valiant men: and they withstood Uzziah the king, and said unto him, 'It appertaineth not unto thee, Uzziah, to burn incense unto the Lord, but to the priests, the sons of Aaron, that are consecrated to burn incense: go out of the sanctuary; for thou hast trespassed.' Then Uzziah was wroth, and had a censer in his hand to burn incense: and while he was wroth with the priests, the leprosy rose up in his forehead. And the chief priest, and all the priests, looked upon him, and, behold, he was leprous, and they thrust him out thence; yea, himself hastened also to go out, because the Lord had smitten him.' And the king continued a leper until the day of his death, dwelling away from his palace, in a separate house; so that his son Jotham acted as regent in the kingdom for seven years, until Uzziah's decease, in 758.

EVENTS.

Israel under Zachariah, Menahem, and Pekahiah. For the first twenty-five years of Uzziah's reign, Jeroboam II. was king of Israel. Upon his death, there was, from some unexplained cause, an interregnum of nearly eleven years, when at length his son Zachariah was placed on the throne. *Zachariah* began to reign 773; but in six months was slain by his general, Shallum, who, in his turn, was assassinated in one month by a rival officer, Menahem. *Menahem* assumed the sovereign power 772, and, by force of arms, was at length generally acknowledged; not, however, before he had put to the sword the defenceless women and children of Tirzah, and other cities, because the people refused to support him. His second year was disturbed by the invasion of Belesis, the new king of Babylon; but he bribed that ambitious general to become his ally, by paying him 1000 talents of silver, which he exacted with great rigour from the Israelites, making every man of rank contribute fifty shekels. *Pekahiah* succeeded his father, Menahem, 761, and

like his parent, displayed no zeal for the worship of the true God. In two years a conspiracy was formed against him by his general, Pekah, who, at the head of fifty men of Gilead, slew him in the palace of Samaria, 759.

The kingdom of Lydia. This country in Asia Minor was first known in authentic history, 797, when Ardysus, one of the Heraclidæ, was its king. The Mermnadæ another branch of the Heraclidæ succeeded under Gyges, eighty years after this; and the last of them was the wealthy Cræsus, whom Cyrus conquered. The Lydians were celebrated for their attention to money; and coining is generally allowed to have originated at a remote period with them.

The first Olympiad. Coræbus, a courier of Elis, gained a prize at the Olympic games 776; and as they had for some time been neglected, this celebration was regarded by the Greeks as a new institution, and denominated (although the twenty-eighth) the first Olympiad. Authentic history may be said to begin with the epoch, and mythic record to close; and for more

40 FALL OF TROY TO FOUNDATION OF ROME. 1184—783 B. C. [ANCIENT
than 1200 years after this period the system of quadriennial dating obtained.

Corinth made a Republic, 779,

when officers called prytanes, from the prytaneum or hall where they sat, supplanted the monarchs.

EMINENT PERSON.

Numitor, fourteenth king of Alba, began to reign conjointly with his brother Amulius; but the latter expelled his brother, put his (Numitor's) son Lausus to death, and consecrated his (Numitor's) daughter, Ilia, to the service of the goddess Vesta, which demanded perpetual celibacy. These great precautions were rendered abor-

tive; and Ilia, the spouse of Mars, gave birth to two sons, Romulus and Remus, whose lives were preserved, though exposed by the tyrant in the river; and who, when grown to adolescence, put the cruel Amulius to death, and restored their grandfather Numitor to his throne.

SECTION XVII.

JOTHAM, KING OF JUDAH.

758 TO 742—16 YEARS.

Jotham, son of Uzziah, conducted himself with an attention, both to the advancement of his nation and to religious matters, very unusual amongst the kings of Judah. He erected a magnificent entrance-gate to the temple, founded several cities in the mountains of Judah, and built castles and towers in the forests. He made the Ammonites tributary, exacting from them yearly 100 talents of silver, 10,000 measures of wheat, and 10,000 of barley.

EVENTS.

Israel under Pekah. The serious troubles of Israel began under this king, who had usurped the throne after murdering Pekahiah, 759. He was son of a captain in the army; and in his time, Tiglath-pileser, king of Assyria, the successor of Phul, took Gilead, and all Galilee and Naphtali, carrying the inhabitants captive to Nineveh. A conspiracy was formed against Pekah by his general, Hoshea, who slew him, and usurped the throne, 739.

Rome founded. Romulus and Remus, grandsons of Numitor, had been committed in an ark to the Tiber when infants, by order of Amulius. A shepherd saved them from the waters, brought them up, and told them the history of their birth. As Numitor was still living, they put the usurper to death, and restored him. Hereupon they resolved to found a city where they had formerly kept sheep; and seeking an omen from the

flight of birds, Remus saw first from mount Aventine six vultures, and Romulus soon after from mount Palatine, twelve. The latter considering himself declared superior to his brother by the gods, set about the building of a city after his name, 753, which became in time the mistress of the civilized world. Remus gave offence to Romulus during the marking out of the city boundaries, by ridiculing the slenderness of the projected walls; whereupon a quarrel arose, which ended in the death of Remus. Rome's first kings were only seven: Romulus, Numa Pompilius, Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, and Tarquinius Superbus. The Romans considered the year 753 B. C. the year 1. Thus, A. U. C. 1, meant Anno Urbis Conditiæ (in the year of the building of the city, 1). The seven hills on which Rome at length stood were called—1. Palatinus; 2. Capitolinus; 3. aven-

times; 4. *Esquilinus*; 5. *Quirinalis*; 6. *Viminalis*; 7. *Cœlus*. Romulus enacted that twelve men called *lictors* should walk before the king as they afterwards did before the consuls within the city, carrying bundles of rods called *fasces*, with an axe in the middle. When a Roman saved the life of a fellow-citizen in battle he had a crown given him made of oak-leaves called *civic*; on him who first scaled the wall of an enemy's city, he ordered to be bestowed the *mural* crown, being one intended to imitate a castellated tower; and on the man who first boarded an enemy's ship, the *naval* crown, having a form like the beak of a ship. The spot in the forum where the public orator's pulpit was placed being ornamented with the rostra or beaks of ships taken from enemies, the pulpit itself obtained the name of *rostrum*. The cause of the so much vaunted strength and courage of the Romans must be looked for in the gymnastic and other violent exercises made compulsory with the young; such as leaping in ponderous armour, carrying heavy weights; and in the gladiatorial spectacles which they were compelled to witness, to inure them to the sight of wounds and blood. The *yoke of ignominy* consisted of three spears placed to form the Greek *Π*, or modern gallows: conquered troops were made to pass under it in token of the subjection of their state. The *Roman worship* was less idolatrous than that of the ancients in general, the people praying to their gods without images on most occasions. Certain images called household gods they kept for protection. These were the *lares*, consisting of small waxen images, clothed in dog-skin, and placed round the hearth in the hall; and the *penates*, kept in the penetralia, or innermost chambers of the house, and there worshipped on occasion. The *ovation* was an inferior kind of triumph, wherein the victor walked through the streets, accompanied by his officers, and preceded by flute-players in lieu of the more warlike drums and trumpets. Free-

dom was given by a master to his slaves by a slap on the face, and hence was called *manumission*, or the sending away by hand. In sacrifices, *libation* was the pouring upon the ground either wine, milk, or other liquid, as an offering to a god, especially to Jupiter and Ceres. The months in aftertimes were divided into kalends, nones, and ides; the *kalends* being on the first day, the *nones* on the fifth of every month but March, May, July, and October, when they were on the seventh, and the *ides* on the thirteenth, excepting in the same four months, when they were on the fifteenth; and they numbered each day, not after, but before each of these divisions. Thus the first day of the month was the *kalends*; the second was called the fourth before the nones; the third the third before the nones; the fourth, *pridie nona* or the day before the nones; the fifth, *nonæ* or the nones; the sixth, the eighth before the ides, and so on decreasing till the twelfth or *pridie idus*; the thirteenth, *idus* or the ides; the fourteenth, the eighteenth before the kalends of the next month, and so on decreasing till the thirtieth or thirty-first, which was called *pridie kalendas*. The *Roman legion* varied in number; and in the time of Polybius consisted of 4200. Each legion was divided into ten cohorts, each cohort into three maniples, and each manipule into two centuries containing each nominally 100 men, having a commander called *centurion*. The Romans had commonly three names; *prænomen*, peculiarly that of the individual, as Marcus; the *generic* name, implying the stock from which the owner sprung, as Tullius; and the *cognomen*, belonging to the immediate family, and often implying some peculiarity in the individual, as Cicero (*with a wart*, because the orator had one in his face). The *ædiles* were magistrates who had the care of all buildings, baths, and aqueducts, and examined the weights and measures, that no false ones might be used. The *prætors* administered justice, and acted for the consuls in their

absence. Their number like that of the ædiles varied.

Æra of Nabonassar. When Nabonassar was king of Babylon, the Jews, in 747, changed their mode of reckoning the year from 360 to 365 days. Their lunisolar year, as it is called, was made by taking twelve moons or months, each having thirty days. The period of alteration has been dignified with the above title.

Messenian Wars. Of these there

were three, between the people of Messenia in Peloponnesus and the Spartans; the first beginning 743, and the last in 465. The Spartans conquered in the last, and exiled the people; but they were afterwards allowed to return in small numbers; and in 370 their descendants were re-instated. The ground of quarrel was the tributary state of Messenia to Lacedæmon.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Isaiah, the first of the four great prophets (Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Daniel) of the tribe of Judah, was related to the legitimate line of the royal family, and entered upon his prophetic office in the first year of Jotham's reign, 758. From the clear and consistent manner in which, in language of fire and sublimity, he describes the coming of the Messiah, and his attributes, he has been styled the evangelical prophet. He continued the successful minister of God full sixty years, until 698; when king Manasseh, in his rage against the opponents of idolatry, commanded him to be cut in two with a wooden saw. The style of Isaiah has been universally admired as the most perfect model of the sublime: it is distinguished at once for all the magnificence and for all the euphony of the Hebrew language.

Romulus having, after the death of Remus, no one to oppose his designs, employed all his energies in the assembling of subjects for his yet unpeopled state. Fugitives, and even criminals, were received with open arms; but as these were insufficient both in number and character, and as women especially were few, he, in order to attract strangers to Rome, celebrated games in honour of Consus, the god of councils, and forcibly carried away the females who had assembled to be spectators of such unusual exhibitions. These violent measures offended the Sabines, who had lost most of their young women by the deceit; whereupon a combined force

soon after entered Rome, and attacked the citizens in the forum. According to Ovid, the two enemies laid down their arms, upon seeing the women rush between the armies and sue for the lives of those who had now become their husbands. The Sabine nation even agreed to unite more intimately with the new city; and Tatius, its king, removed to Rome, to share the sovereign power with its founder. Having thus secured the prosperity of his nascent kingdom, Romulus brought into subjection much of the surrounding country, and divided the conquered lands into three portions: one for religious uses to maintain the priests, to erect temples, and to consecrate altars; the second to support the state expenses; and the last to be equally distributed amongst the people, for agricultural purposes. The whole body of his subjects consisted of two great classes, called patricians and plebeians, patron and client, who, by mutual interest, were induced to preserve peace, and to promote the public good. Amongst the patricians were 100 senators, men aged, learned, and experienced, the ministers of religion, and all such as promoted the welfare of their country by mental labour: the plebeians were all such as passed life in the exercise of the manual arts. Some time after issuing these wise ordinances, Romulus, while giving instructions to his senators, is said to have suddenly disappeared; and the eclipse of the sun, which happened at that time, was favourable to the rumour

which asserted that the king had been taken up to heaven, 714, after a reign of thirty-nine years. This was further confirmed by Proculus, a senator, who solemnly declared that, as he returned from Alba, he had seen Romulus in a

form above human, and that he had directed him to tell the Romans to pay him divine honours, under the name of Quirinus, and to assure them their city was doomed to become the capital of the world.

PERIOD THE FOURTH.

From the Foundation of Rome to the Rise of Persia.

753 TO 538 B. C.—215 YEARS.

SECTION I.

AHAZ, KING OF JUDAH.

742 TO 726—16 YEARS.

Ahaz, son of Jotham, had no sooner succeeded than he closed the temple, restored the worship of Baal, made his children go through the fire to Moloch, and burned incense in the high places, and on the hills, and under every green tree, to the idols of the Syrians. Enemies, however, began to assail him; and while Rezin, king of Syria, made an incursion, and carried thousands of his people captive to Damascus, Pekah, king of Israel, slew 120,000 of his subjects in one day, besides carrying towards Samaria no less than 200,000 men, women, and children, prisoners of war. At the intercession of the Israelitish prophet, Oded, these latter, with their property, were delivered up to Ahaz again at Jericho. Nevertheless, Ahaz applied for aid to Tiglath-pileser, king of Assyria, who came to Jerusalem, and, under the pretence of supporting the king of Judah, forced him to give up a large portion of the treasures of the temple, and to exact money for him from the chief lords.

EVENTS.

Israel under Hoshea. Hoshea, upon his murder of Pekah, made alliance with the king of Assyria, Shalmaneser, as also with So, king of Egypt, who had usurped the crown, after putting to death king Boccharis. Thus strengthened, he ruled peacefully until the death of Ahaz; soon after which we shall see that Israel fell never to rise again.

Foundation of Syracuse. This kingdom, which was a portion of Sicily, commenced with the building of the city so named, 732, by Archias, a Corinthian, and one of the Heraclidæ. The people became powerful, though

their government was despotic; inso-much that, in the reign of the elder Dionysius, an army of 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse was kept in constant pay. It is said of the Syracusans, that the men were superlatively excellent when virtuous, and profoundly infamous when bad. Theocritus, the Greek poet, and Archimedes, the geometrician, were natives of Syracuse. Thrasybulus some time tyrannised over Syracuse, and then the Dyonisii, whom Timoleon expelled; and at last it fell, under the consul Marcellus, into the hands of the Romans, 212 B. C.

EMINENT PERSON.

Aristomenes, a general of Messenia, who encouraged his countrymen to throw off the Spartan yoke. He was called *the just*, for his many virtues. Having once defended some Spartan women from the rudeness of his soldiers, who had taken them captive, they obtained his liberty by their intercessions, when he was afterwards taken prisoner.

SECTION II.

HEZEKIAH, KING OF JUDAH.

726 to 698—28 YEARS.

Hezekiah, son of Ahaz, having observed the distresses of his country, and considered the source of them, endeavoured to apply a proper remedy. He opened the temple, and restored divine worship, according to the law of Moses. He broke the images, cut down the groves, and cleansed the city and the land from the pollution of idols. After several years of peace and prosperity, he was seized with a severe illness, and forewarned by the prophet Isaiah to prepare for death, as it was beyond the power of human art to recover him. The king, being anxious for his country, which the Assyrians were now invading after having overthrown the Israelitish nation, entreated for a longer life; and his fervent prayers were such powerful advocates with the Father of mercies, that Isaiah was sent to assure him fifteen years should be added to his life, and his kingdom delivered from its foes. Sennacherib or Sargon (son of Shalmaneser, who had conquered Israel), king of Assyria, had already reduced many cities of Judah; and as he now drew near to Jerusalem, 710, he sent a letter to Hezekiah defying the God of Israel. The king thereupon went into the temple, and spread the letter before the Lord, and earnestly implored him to vindicate his honour, and rescue him and his people from the impending ruin. God heard his prayer; and while the haughty conqueror was intending to storm the city, a plague broke out amongst his troops, and carried off 185,000 of them in one night. Sennacherib, on this, hurried back to Nineveh; and while worshipping soon after in the house of the idol Nisroch, was slain by two of his own sons, that Esarhaddon, their brother, might rule in his stead.

EVENTS.

Fall of Israel. Hoshea usurped the throne, after murdering Pekah, 730; and had scarcely seated himself when Shalmaneser of Assyria, son of Tiglath-pileser, made him tributary. But Hoshea, uniting with So, the Egyptian usurper, tried to escape the payment promised to the conqueror; whereon Shalmaneser besieged him in Samaria, and, after three years, took him captive, 721. The chief of the Israelites were then removed to Nineveh; and to ensure the fidelity of the vanquished cities, Medes and Assyrians were placed in them (especially in Samaria), who, in process of time,

were converted to the true faith, and had a temple of their own on mount Gerizim. These followers of the law of Moses, yet not descendants of Abraham, are called in the New Testament *Samaritans*, and were exceedingly despised by the real Jews.

First recorded Eclipse. This was of the moon, 721, according to Ptolemy.

Tarentum built. Phalanthus, a Spartan, emigrated to Calabria, in Italy, and founded this city, 707, which became paramount over thirteen towns, and could arm 100,000 soldiers.

Cercyra built by a colony from Carioth under Chersicrates, 703, in the isle so named (the modern Corfu). The isle is famous for the shipwreck of Ulysses, and the gardens of Alcinous.

EMINENT PERSON.

Gyges, who, according to Plato, descended into a chasm in the earth, where he found a brazen horse, whose sides he opened, and saw within the carcass the body of a man of uncommon size, from whose finger he took a brazen ring. This ring rendered him invisible; and, by means of its virtue, he introduced himself to the queen of Candaules king of Lydia, murdered her husband, married her, and usurped the crown.

SECTION III.

MANASSEH, KING OF JUDAH.

698 TO 643—55 YEARS.

Manasseh succeeded his father, Hezekiah, and displayed as much zeal to restore, as Hezekiah had shown to abolish, idolatrous worship. While promulgating ordinances for the putting up of altars in the groves, after placing the image of Baal in the temple, and putting the prophet Isaiah to a cruel death, he was assailed by the Chaldeans, who took him prisoner, and carried him in chains to Babylon. He was released after a time, and restored to his people; and thereupon commanded the idols to be destroyed, and sacrifices to be offered, even on the heathen altars, to the true God.

EVENTS.

Rome under Numa and Tullus. An interval of some years elapsed, upon the death of Romulus, before another king was chosen; the people doubting whether to select a Roman or a Sabine. At length Numa Pompilius, a Sabine philosopher of great austerity, was elected. His reign is by no means memorable for battles or conquests. He was averse from war; studied to soften the manners of the Romans rather than to render them superior in power to their neighbours; encouraged agriculture; and divided the citizens into distinct bodies of artists. He erected a temple to Janus, which was to remain open in time of war, and to be closed in time of peace; and invented *dii termini*, or boundary-gods, which he caused to be placed on the borders of the Roman state, and of each man's particular lands. His other acts were the adding of two months to the ten of Romulus; his institution of the college of vestals; his establishment of pontiffs to direct all secret state-affairs; of augurs, to explain omens; and of the Salian priests, to preserve the sacred shields said to have fallen from heaven, and which were considered the palladium of the state. *Tullus Hostilius* succeeded him 671, and soon quarrelled with the Albans. After a few skirmishes, Tullus and the leader of the Albans endeavoured to unite the states, by removing the chief Alban families to Rome; but the Albans objected, and agreed to give the superiority to their own or the Roman state, according as a combat, of which they had drawn up the plan, should be decided. The Albans had in their army three brothers, the Curiatii; and the Romans three, the Horatii: these were to fight, and the two states were in future to be ruled as one by the nation to which the victors belonged. Two of the Romans fell; the three Albans were wounded; and the surviving Roman was unhurt. He, therefore, to separate the Curiatii, betook himself to flight; and, as they pursued him at a distance from each other, he slew them as they each came up. Tullus, upon seeing that the Alban leader,

Fuffetius, intended to break the agreement, seized upon Alba Longa, and levelled it with the ground; took several cities from the Latins, who had maintained a separate dominion during the rule of the Alban kings; defeated the Sabines, who had again become independent of Rome; and having introduced the Saturnalia, died, some say by lightning, 638.

Byzantium founded, 658, by Byzas and a colony from Sparta. The Roman emperor Constantine, in after-times made it his second capital, and named it after himself, Constantinople. A number of Greek historians have been termed Byzantines; and their labours, giving accounts of the revolutions of the eastern empire, were first collected in 36 vols. folio, at Paris, 1648.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Psammeticus, 685, put an end to the dodecharchy, or rule of twelve, in Egypt, and swayed the country with equity several years.

Archilochus, a poet of Paros, who introduced the iambic metre.

Tyrtæus, an elegiac poet, who so ani-

mated the Lacedæmonians with martial songs that they defeated the Messenians, after which he was treated with the highest respect by the Spartans.

Terpander, of Lesbos, a poet who added three strings to the lyre, making them seven.

SECTION IV.

AMON, KING OF JUDAH.

643 TO 641—2 YEARS.

Amon. Nothing more is recorded of this son and successor of Manasseh, than that he was twenty-two years old when he began to reign, and that he was as great an idolater as his father had originally been. The officers about his person slew him; and he was buried in the garden of the palace, in a sepulchre made by Manasseh for himself, 641.

EMINENT PERSON.

Cypselus, a man of Corinth, who seized upon the sovereign power, and overthrew the sub-monarchy of the Bacchidæ, declaring himself sole ty-

rant, 641. He reigned thirty years, and was succeeded by his son, Periander.

SECTION V.

JOSIAH, KING OF JUDAH.

641 TO 610—31 YEARS.

Josiah destroyed the altars and idols which his father, Amon, had put up; and finding in the temple a copy of the Pentateuch, he publicly read it to the people, and enjoined them to follow its precepts. Resolved on celebrating the feast of the passover, which had been neglected for centuries, excepting on one occasion by Hezekiah, he invited the remnant of the Israelites to join his subjects in keeping it; and so exactly did he conform to all the rules laid down for its observance by Moses, that no such passover had been celebrated since the days of Samuel. Josiah put to death all the priests of the idols, and burned the bones of them, and of their buried predecessors, on the altars: he also took away the horses that the former kings of Judah had dedicated to the sun, and burned the chariots of the sun with fire. His death was on the field of

battle: Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, when on his march against Babylon, attacked him and slew him at Megiddo; and his servants carried him in a chariot dead to Jerusalem, and buried him in his own sepulchre, 610.

EVENTS.

Rome under Ancus Martius and Tarquinius Priscus. Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was chosen to succeed Tullus, 638, and began with encouraging the peaceful arts, exhorting the people to return to the employments they had been induced to quit during the warlike sway of his predecessor. Though beloved on these accounts by the Romans, the Latins held him in contempt, and made inroads upon his territories. But Ancus went against the revolvers with a tolerable force; and spent the remainder of his reign in capturing their towns and extending the boundaries of his kingdom. He built the port of Ostia, enclosed Rome with walls, and died 614. *Tarquinius Priscus.* Ancus left two sons, who had been placed under the tuition of Tarquin, the son of a wealthy merchant of Corinth. The young man, to secure his rich inheritance from Cypselus, had fled to Italy, and become a Roman senator; and when Ancus died he declared himself king. His extermination of the Latins, and his conquest of Etruria, the most powerful of the Italian states, reconciled the people to his usurpation. The Etrurians having resigned to Tarquin their ensigns of royalty, viz. a crown of gold, a sceptre with an eagle on its top, a tunic embroidered with gold, and a purple robe, the conqueror, arrayed with these splendid insignia, passed through Rome in state, after his victory, sitting in a gilded chariot and attended by twelve lictors, carrying axes and fasces: and not only the succeeding kings, but even the emperors of Rome in later days, adopted the same style of dress, ornaments, and ceremony, on public occasions, in commemoration of the Tuscan triumph. Tarquin greatly improved the city: he rebuilt the walls with hewn stone; erected those famous common-sewers, the ruins of which

may still be seen; and filled the forum with temples, halls of justice, and shops for merchandise. On projecting an increased number of cavalry, he was opposed by the augurs, on the ground that Romulus, by omens, had fixed the existing number: and to expose their deceit, he summoned Nævius, their chief, before a public assembly, and desired him to give a specimen of his art, by telling him if what he (Tarquin) was meditating could be effected. The augur replied in the affirmative: whereon the king produced a whetstone and razor, observing that he had been thinking if it were possible to cut the stone with the razor. Nævius gravely desired him to try: whereon Tarquin, with apparent ease, divided the substance. The crowd shouted aloud in admiration; and Tarquin directed a statue of brass to be erected to Nævius, which continued till the days of Augustus. Without any additional cavalry, the king went against the Sabines, and again rendered them tributary. He was assassinated 576, when aged 80.

Draco's Laws at Athens were established 624; and, for their severity, were said to have been written in blood. When asked why they were so rigorous, the legislator replied that, as the smallest transgression had appeared to him deserving of death, he could find no severer punishment for capital offences. Still Draco was beloved for his own virtues; and his death is said to have happened from the respect the people attempted to show him at the theatre. A man wishing to express his public approval of any one, took the cloak from his own shoulders, and placed it upon those of the object of his respect: on this occasion, the crowd of admirers so simultaneously covered Draco with garments, that he was smothered. Solon abrogated his laws.

SECTION VI.

JEHOAHAZ, JEHOIAKIM, AND JEHOIACHIN, KINGS OF JUDAH.

610 TO 599—11 YEARS.

Jehoahaz succeeded his father, Josiah ; but in three months after his accession, Pharaoh Necho dethroned him, and carried him captive to Egypt. *Jehoiakim*, the elder brother of Jehoahaz, was then put in his place : his real name was Eliakim ; but Necho, according to the practice of conquerors, changed it. The ruin of Judah was now at hand. Nebuchadnezzar, the new king of Babylon, came against Jerusalem, 606, imprisoned Jehoiakim for a time, and removed to Babylon as much treasure and people as he could conveniently get together. The king, it would seem, was then allowed to remain a tributary owner of his throne until his death in 599. *Jehoiachin* or Jeconiah, a youth of eighteen, succeeded his father Jehoiakim ; but in three months after, Nebuchadnezzar again came down upon Jerusalem, and laid siege to it. The king, finding defence useless, went out, accompanied by his mother, his princes, officers, and servants, and surrendered to his enemy, who carried the whole of them prisoners to Babylon, with all the craftsmen and smiths, and every one capable of serving in the army. He also took the rest of the treasures from the temple ; and setting up Mattaniah, another son of Jehoiakim, as king, changed his name to Zedekiah. None, save the poorest sort of the people of the land remained as subjects of this nominal sovereign.

EVENT.

Fall of Assyria. From the division of this empire after the death of Sardanapalus, the self-styled kings of Assyria had gradually increased their dominions, by conquests from Media, Babylon, Syria, and Egypt. In 610, however, Cyaxares I. of Media, and Nabopolassar of Babylon, vanquished Chynilidan, king of Assyria, who had overrun their states ; and driving him back to Nineveh, besieged him there. The city was at length taken and burned, the king killed, and Assyria divided between the two conquerors. So fell a monarchy which had once been considered the most powerful on the earth, and which had endured, with various degrees of influence, the great period of 1608 years.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Pharaoh Necho II., king of Egypt, celebrated for attempting to unite the Mediterranean and Red seas, and for having discovered Africa to be a peninsula. He was on his way to attack the Babylonians, when Josiah, their ally, tried to stop his passage at Megiddo. Necho, having slain the king of Judah there, marched upon Babylon, and overthrew his enemies ; and on his return through Syria, made the nations therein tributary. Being at leisure to punish Judah, he summoned the new king Jehoahaz to Riblah ; and loading him with chains, sent him a prisoner towards the Nile. He then marched upon Jerusalem, set up Jehoiakim, and exacted from that king the annual payment of 100 talents of silver and one talent of gold. Nebuchadnezzar soon after recovered Syria from Necho ; and all the petty sovereigns, who had been lately vassals of the Egyptian, again fell into the hands of the Babylonian.

Sappho, the Greek poetess of Lesbos,

and inventor of Sapphic metre, was called the *tenth* muse, and temples were raised in her honour, after death, by the Lesbians. Only fragments of her verses remain, which justify the opinion given of her sweetness and elegance by the ancients. She was, however, a licentious woman, and no fit addition to the sacred nine, who were young, beautiful, and modest virgins.—*The Nine Muses* were daughters of Jupiter and Mnemosyne, and called Pierides, from mount Pierus, their birthplace. They were Erato, the muse of love-songs; Thalia, of comedy; Clio, of history; Euterpe, of the pipe; Calliope, of heroic poetry; Polyhymnia, of rhetoric; Urania, of astronomy; Melpomene, of tragedy; and Terpsichore, of dancing.—*The Three Graces*, daughters of Jupiter

and Eurynome, were Aglaia, Euphrosyne, Thalia.—*The Three Furies* or Eumenides, the ministers of vengeance of the gods, were daughters of Acheron and Night, and were Tisiphone, Megara, and Alecto.—*The Three Fates* or Parcae, were daughters of Nox and Erebus, and presided over the birth and life of mankind: Clotho, the youngest, superintended the moment of our birth; Lachesis spun out the actions and events of life; and Atropos, the eldest, cut the thread of life with scissars.

Alcæus, the lyric poet of Lesbos, and inventor of Alcaic metre.

Chilo of Sparta, one of the seven wise, whose maxim was, 'Know thyself,' though it failed to influence his own conduct; for, upon his son's gaining a victory at Olympia, he died through excess of joy.

SECTION VII.

ZEDEKIAH, KING OF JUDAH.

599 TO 588—11 YEARS.

Zedekiah was as disposed to idolatry as any of his predecessors. Having broken faith with Nebuchadnezzar, the Chaldean invested Jerusalem, 590; but though he built forts around it to overtop the walls, and used every usual method of assault for two years, no breach was made, nor any advantage gained. Famine at last did that which the engines of war were unable to effect. The pent-up Judæans, having no hope of obtaining food, resolved, with the king at their head, to escape from the city by night; and they had reached the plains of Jericho, when the Babylonians were seen in full pursuit. Exhausted by their previous deprivations, the whole party were carried prisoners to Riblah. Nebuchadnezzar hereupon commanded the sons of Zedekiah to be slain before their father's face, and then put out the eyes of the unhappy monarch, and sent him in chains to Babylon. The Chaldean troops burned down Jerusalem, including Solomon's magnificent temple; and carried off every man of Judah, save the vine-dressers, and other labourers of the soil.

EVENTS.

The Fall of Judah. The kingdom of Judah had existed 507 years. Nebuchadnezzar made one Gedaliah its governor; but Ishmael, a relative of the dethroned house, slew him, and thereupon removed with his followers into Egypt. The prophets Daniel and Ezekiel were amongst the captives taken to Babylon: but Jeremiah accompanied the party that escaped into Egypt.

Expulsion of the Scythians. These

barbarians, the people of the present Russia in Asia, had seized upon Asia Minor, 624, turning out the various Grecian colonists; but Cyaxares I., of Media, drove them up into their own country, 596. The Scythians, though a wandering race, were a philosophical and moral people, and highly attached to monarchy. When the sovereign died, his body was carried in state through each province, and buried with the utmost degree of barbaric pomp.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Jeremiah, second of the great prophets, was called when young to exercise his divine office in Josiah's reign. He met with great opposition from his countrymen, whose persecution sometimes drew from him expressions which many have thought hard to be reconciled with his religious principles; but which, when duly weighed, demand our pity for his unmerited sufferings. When carried with the remnant of the Jews into Egypt, after the murder of Gedaliah, he continued warmly to remonstrate against their idolatrous practices; but they took such offence thereat, that they stoned him to death. The prophecies of Jeremiah are of a very distinguished character. He foretold the fate of Zedekiah; the Babylonish captivity, the precise time of its duration, and the return of the Jews; the destruction of Babylon; and the miraculous birth of Christ. He had a peculiar talent for expressing the gentler passions of grief and pity; and in this way has run into direct poetry throughout whole chapters in his prophecies. His Lamentations are five regular elegiac compositions; and for rich and beautiful imagery can compare with the finest productions of that class in Grecian literature.

Periander succeeded his father Cypselus as king of Corinth, and was ranked amongst the seven wise for his patronage of science. Asking the tyrant of Sicily how best he could govern men, the Sicilian plucked all the ears in a field of corn which rose above the mass. Encouraged by this hint, he surrounded himself with a powerful guard, and put to death the most influential citizens of Corinth. *Arion*, the lyric poet, was admitted to Periander's friendship, and going to Italy amassed vast riches by his profession. In process of time, the poet desired to return to Corinth; and the sailors of his ship, to possess themselves of his wealth, planned his murder. Arion, sensible of their intention, amused them for a time with his lyre; and jumping suddenly into the sea, a dolphin, attracted by his playing, carried him safely on its back to Corinth. Periander crucified the sailors on their arrival.

Pittacus, one of the seven wise, delivered his country, Mitylene, in Lesbos, from the tyranny of Melanchrus; and killed Phrynon, the Athenian general, in single combat, by artfully entangling him in a net, which he held beneath his shield.

SECTION VIII.

NEBUCHADNEZZAR, KING OF CHALDEA.

588 TO 562—26 YEARS.

Nebuchadnezzar succeeded his father Nabopolassar, the conqueror of Assyria, 606; in which year he made the Judæans under Jehoiakim tributary. In 603, however, Jehoiakim attempted to throw off the Chaldean yoke; and his revolt occasioned the fall of Judah. Nebuchadnezzar having subdued almost all Asia, became puffed with pride; and causing a golden statue to be set up, commanded his subjects of all nations to assemble in Babylon and worship it. Daniel, however, and his three Judæan friends, Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego, all of whom had been placed in high offices in Chaldea, declined to bow down before the idol; and the three latter were thrown into a furnace that had been heated to the highest possible degree. Great, however, was the despot's amazement when he saw the men walking unhurt amidst the flames, and a fourth person, having a divine aspect, talking with them; the

live at the same time seizing upon the servants engaged in keeping up the supply of fuel. Calling to the men to come out of the furnace, and declaring his belief in the God of Judah, he issued a decree, to the effect that no man should in future question His almighty power. Still did the tyrant vaunt himself; and he was walking, thus boasting, in his palace at Babylon, when there came a voice from above, declaring that his kingdom had departed from him, and that he should be driven from the society of men, as Daniel had foretold. He was hereupon seized with the mania called by the Greeks *lycanthropy*, which causes a man to imagine himself an ox or other beast, and to run into the streets and fields, and even to eat the grass of the ground. At the end of seven years he was restored to his reason and throne; and published that account of his illness and of his delivery by the power of the true God, which is inserted at the fourth chapter of Daniel. He died in the forty-fifth year of his reign; in the fifth of which happened an eclipse of the sun, mentioned by Ptolemy, which is the surest foundation of the chronology of his rule.

EVENTS.

The Captivity of Judah. The Jews of Judah dated their captivity from 606, when Nebuchadnezzar first came down upon Johoiakim, till the exact expiration of seventy years, as Jeremiah had foretold; when Cyrus gave the people a release.

Introduction of Comedy at Athens, 562; when Susarion and Dolon, two poets, commenced a representation of the lively scenes of every-day society, on a moveable stage-cart; much in the manner of our modern mountebanks.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Ezekiel, third of the great prophets, was placed with others of his captive countrymen upon the banks of the Chebar in Mesopotamia, where he began to prophesy. The firmness with which he censured the idolatry of some Jews in Babylon cost him his life; but his memory was greatly revered, not only by his companions, but also by the Medes and Persians. His style is bold, vehement, and tragic; and is often worked up to a tremendous species of dignity. He was fond of exciting terror, rather than of moving the softer passions, using a rough but majestic tone, and an unpolished though noble simplicity of diction.

Thales, one of the seven wise, was descended from Cadmus, and travelled early into Egypt, where he obtained much astronomical knowledge; being the first to calculate with accuracy a solar eclipse, and to divide the year into 365 days. As founder of the Ionic sect, he is called the Milesian philosopher, being a native of Miletus;

and his school is noted for its stoic and cynic severity. Thales never married; alleging, when his mother urged him early in life to take a wife, that he was too young, and when late, that he was too old. A story is told of his conveying to a friend, who had advised him to enter the matrimonial state, the sad intelligence of his son's accidental death. The parent was inconsolable. 'See there,' said Thales, 'how much happier are we who have not sons to lose!' whereon he told the afflicted father that he had but invented the tale to try his firmness, and to prove his own proposition.

Servius Tullius, sixth king of Rome, succeeded Priscus, 576, and banished his murderers. Thrice the Etrurians revolted, and were subdued by Servius; and a reform of the state then became the king's most anxious study. He divided the people into six classes, the first being the richest; and when the census or valuation of estates had been completed, he ordered a solemn assembly to be held in the Campus

Martius, a large plain by the Tiber, at which a sacrifice of animals was made to the gods: and this was the first *lustrum* (or expiatory offering), and was ordained to be repeated ever after once in five years! Servius was growing old, when domestic matters began to occupy his attention. He had married his two daughters to the grandsons of the former king, to secure their fidelity; and one of these sons-in-law, Tarquinius, combined with his wife's sister, each to poison their consort. The guilty pair having declared themselves man and wife, Tarquin arrayed in royal robes, forcibly

took possession of the throne, while the senators were sitting, 532; and when Servius attempted to force him from the chair of state, the brutal youth seized his relative, and hurrying him to the steps of the senate-house, hurled him down upon the pavement of the forum. Tullia, the murderous consort of Tarquin, now appeared; and a party having declared in favour of her husband, she commanded her charioteer to drive over the mangled body of her parent; insomuch that not only the wheels of the car, but the apparel of the inhuman daughter, were sprinkled with his blood.

SECTION IX.

ILOARUDAM, KING OF CHALDEA.

562 TO 555—7 YEARS.

Iloarudam, or Evilmerodach, succeeded his father Nebuchadnezzar, 562; and married Nitocris, a benevolent woman, who induced him to favour the Jewish captives. Nebuchadnezzar had shut him up, for disobeying some command; in the same prison with Jehoiachin, king of Judah; and so greatly did this circumstance attach him to Jehoiachin, that he released the Jewish monarch upon his father's decease, and 'spoke kindly unto him, and set his throne above the throne of the kings that were with him in Babylon, and changed his prison-garments: and he did continually eat bread before him all the days of his life.'

EVENT.

The Usurpation of Pisistratus. Solon was at the head of Athenian affairs, when his ambitious kinsman, Pisistratus, induced the people to grant him a body-guard of fifty men, to protect him from secret enemies. With this force he subdued both friends and foes, seized the citadel, and was acknow-

ledged supreme governor over the most turbulent of states, 560; a post which he held, with occasional banishment, thirty-three years. He was the friend of learning, and an able ruler: and to him we are indebted for collecting the rhapsodies of the immortal Homer.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Solon, fifth of the seven wise, was born at Salamis, and descended from Codrus. He drew up a code of laws, wherein he takes no notice of either parricide or sacrilege, supposing no Athenian could be guilty of such offences. He had scarcely refused to be made king by a party in Athens, when his relative, Pisistratus, seized the sovereign power; whereupon he retired

first to the court of Cræsus, king of Lydia, whom he endeavoured in vain to convince of the vanity of wealth, and ultimately to Cyprus, where he died. His laws remained in force 400 years.

Æsop, the fabulist and moral philosopher of Phrygia, was a slave. Being freed, he was patronized by Cræsus, who sent him on a particular occasion to consult the oracle at Delphi. Here

he quarrelled with the Delphic priests; who, offended at his sarcasms, accused him of stealing a vessel of the temple, and hurled him headlong from a rock, 561. It is difficult to ascertain in the present day which are the precise productions of *Æsop*, amongst the countless fables attributed to him. It is enough that he is acknowledged to have been the first among the Greeks who attempted to correct the morals of the people, and reform the state, by this species of writing.

Bias of Priene, sixth of the seven wise, saved his country from ruin, and was greatly honoured by his fellow-citizens.

Epimenides, the epic poet of Crete, who, while tending his flocks, entered a cave and fell asleep. This sleep continued, says Pliny, fifty-seven years! so that when he awoke, he found every object altered about him, and all his friends dead. He delivered Athens from a plague, and is said to have lived 289 years.

Mimnermus, the Greek poet of Colophon, and inventor of pentameter verse.

Xenophanes, of Colophon, who founded the Eleatic sect in Sicily, which held the wildest opinions about astronomy and the deity, such as that the stars were extinguished every morning, and that God and the world were identical.

Anacharsis, a Scythian philosopher, who was associated amongst their wise men by the Greeks. He was wont to compare laws to cobwebs; which can stop small flies, but are unable to resist the force of larger insects. When he returned to Scythia from Athens, where he had spent some time in the friendship of Solon, he attempted to introduce the laws of the Athenians; which so irritated his brother, then on the throne, that he slew him. The classical work of Barthelemi gives merely the pretended travels of Anacharsis.

Anaximander, the Milesian philosopher, was the disciple of Thales and the inventor of geographical maps and sundials. His notions of nature were wild; such as that man was made of earth and water, and heated by the beams of the sun; though he affirmed the earth to be a sphere. *Anaximenes*, his disciple, asserted that the heaven was a solid concave sphere, in which the stars were fixed like nails; an opinion which originated the proverb, "If the sky should fall."

Cleobulus of Lindos, the last of the seven wise, is only celebrated for his extreme symmetry of body, and a few verses. Thus the seven wise men of Greece were Chilo, Periander, Pittacus, Thales, Solon, Bias, and Cleobulus.

SECTION X.

BELSHAZZAR, KING OF CHALDEA.

555 TO 538—17 YEARS.

Belshazzar, or Nabonadius, son of Iloarudam, is only mentioned in scripture as having been besieged, 538, by the army of the Medes, wherein the chief command was held by Cyrus, governor of the Persians. During the investment of Babylon, Belshazzar gave a feast; and being heated with wine, ordered the vessels which had been captured from the temple at Jerusalem to be brought to the table; that he and his princes, his wives and his concubines, might drink out of them. A damp, however, soon fell upon the royal mirth: a hand was seen writing in figures of fire upon the wall the mysterious words 'Mene, mene, tekel upharsin.' Belshazzar, in the utmost consternation, sent for the magi to interpret the sentence: they confessed they could not. Daniel was then called; and Belshazzar declared that if he could

explain the writing, he would make him third ruler in the kingdom. Daniel replied, "Let thy gifts be to thyself, and give thy rewards to another; yet I will read the writing unto the king, and make known to him the interpretation." He then pointed out to the monarch how grossly ungrateful he had been to the God of heaven (whose mercy had been acknowledged even by Nebuchadnezzar) in the matter of defiling the sacred vessels then upon the table; and showed that *mene* (to number), signified the years of his kingdom were numbered or finished; *tekél* (to weigh), that he had been weighed and found defective in virtue; *upharsin* or *peres* (they divide), that his kingdom should be shared between the Medes and the Persians. In that same night was Babylon entered by Cyrus, Belshazzar slain, and the kingdom of the Chaldees destroyed. The Medes had obtained an entrance by draining the channels of the Euphrates; pouring into the city in a quarter where no preparations for defence had been made.

EVENTS.

Fall of Lydia. Cræsus, the last monarch, is celebrated for his wealth, the vanity of which could scarcely be impressed upon his mind even by the arguments of Solon. Warring with the Medes, he was taken prisoner by their general, afterwards the great Cyrus, and condemned to be burned, 548. When on the pile, Cyrus was surprised to hear him call aloud for Solon; and inquiring the cause, was struck with the wisdom of his remark "that wealth was indeed valueless,

and mere vanity!" He hereupon gave him his life, but added Lydia, and eventually all Asia Minor, to the Median empire.

Founding of Marseilles. The Phœceans of Ionia, an Athenian colony, who took their name from the *phocæ* or seals, so common on the Ionian shore, left Asia Minor, 539, when Cyrus invaded it; and, after many vicissitudes, settled in Gaul, and founded Massilia, now Marseilles.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Daniel, last of the four great prophets, rose at the court of Chaldea by his interpretation of the royal dreams. Nebuchadnezzar had even forgotten his first vision, much as it had troubled him, when Daniel brought it to his mind, and explained it. Rewarded with the government of a province, he resided much away from Babylon, though at the period of Belshazzar's impious feast he was in that city; and upon the succession of Cyaxares, as sovereign of united Media, Persia, and Chaldea, he was made first of the three presidents of the kingdom. The jealousy of his colleagues evinced itself by their pointing out his belief in a God far different from the gods of Chaldea; to whom he prayed thrice a day in an undisguised manner, to the great scandal of the king and nation. They therefore, as if to flatter Cyaxares, ordained that no

man should for thirty days ask of any god or man any petition, save of the king, on pain of being thrown into the den of lions kept for the execution of state criminals; and the monarch signed it, without knowing that it aimed at Daniel. Unable to recal his decree, Cyaxares saw his minister cast to the wild beasts, and sealed the entrance of the den with his own signet, according to the custom of the country. The afflicted king took no rest that night; but commanded the music in the palace to cease, and spent the hours in fasting, and in prayer to the true God. Great was his joy in the morning to find the prophet unharmed; and he cast his accusers to the lions, which tore them in pieces before they had well entered the den. Having declared the fortunes of Persia through a line of kings yet unborn, Daniel died, aged ninety, in great

esteem with Cyrus, 534. The writing of Daniel is very different from that of the other prophets. His style is a concise unpoetical narrative, and he preserves a simple yet nervous diction throughout.

Phalaris, tyrant of Agrigentum in Sicily, punished his subjects with excruciating torture. *Perillus* made him a furnace in shape of a brazen bull, to aid his cruelty; and *Phalaris* ordered the inventor himself to be first broiled in it. His subjects rose upon him 562, and destroyed him in the same machine; which was afterwards carried by *Amilcar* to Carthage, but restored to the state by *Scipio*. *Agrigentum*, now *Girgenti*, boasts of more venerable ruins of antiquity than any other site in Sicily.

Milo, a celebrated athlete of Crotona, who became a prodigy in strength. It is said, that he carried on his shoulders a bullock, four years old, for forty yards, and having killed it with a blow of his fist, eat it up in a day. He was one of the disciples of *Pythagoras*, and saved the life of that philosopher and his other pupils; for, the pillar which supported the roof of the school having suddenly given way, he sustained the weight of the building while they escaped. Attempting in his old age to rend asunder a tree, which he found partially cleft in a forest, the timber yielded at first to his violence; but presently closed again, and caught both his hands. No aid being near, he was thus held until the wolves devoured him.

PERIOD THE FIFTH.

From the Rise to the Fall of the Persian Empire.

538 TO 331—207 YEARS.

SECTION I.

CYAXARES, KING OF PERSIA.

538 TO 536—2 YEARS.

Cyaxares, king of the Medes, called *Darius* in scripture, on finding the success of his general and nephew, *Cyrus*, united Chaldaea with Media, and, in honour of the conqueror, who was chief of the tribes of Persians, called his extended dominions Persia, and constituted *Cyrus* his heir. *Ecbatana*, the seat of the Median court, was deserted for *Babylon*; the empire divided into 120 provinces, each having a satrap at its head; and over these were placed three presidents, with the privilege to one of acting as chief minister of the king. *Daniel* held the last-named exalted post; and had the merit of converting *Cyaxares* to the true faith. The latter survived his conquest but two years, dying aged sixty-four.

EVENT.

Rise of Cappadocia, in Asia Minor, to the Persians or Romans; and in 537, *Pharnases* declaring himself king. This state was usually tributary either to the Persians or Romans; and its most celebrated ruler was *Archelaus*.

Simonides, of Cos, wrote elegies with peculiar elegance, and the people of Syracuse erected a splendid monument to his memory. Phædrus says, he was such a favourite of the gods as to have had his life miraculously preserved at an entertainment, where the roof fell upon the guests. The same poet has also shown, by instancing the ease of Simonides during a shipwreck,

how superior in value are the gifts of the mind to those of fortune. The passengers are represented losing their lives in attempting to swim ashore encumbered by their property; while Simonides, leaving his money-bags in the ship, escapes to land poor, but satisfied that he carried the means of wealth in his head.

SECTION II.

CYRUS THE GREAT, KING OF PERSIA.

536 TO 529—7 YEARS.

Cyrus. Adjoining to Media, had long existed in a tributary state to either Media, Chaldea, or Assyria, a pastoral or nomad race, said to be descended from Perseus, son of Perseus and Andromeda, and divided into ten tribes; one of them, called the Parsagadæ, having rule over the rest. Cyrus, the nephew of Cyaxares, had been put over these people by his uncle to ensure their fidelity; and chiefly by their means he had obtained possession of the Chaldean empire, after subduing all Asia Minor. Persia, henceforward, included a vast territory; extending lengthwise from the Indus to the Mediterranean, and bounded north and south by the Euxine and Arabian seas. Cyrus found the Jews captives in Babylon; and seventy years after their abduction, he permitted certain of them to return to their land under Zerubbabel, and rebuild the temple, himself defraying the cost. This monarch's history has been variously recorded by Herodotus and Xenophon. Herodotus states that he was, like *Œdipus*, exposed in infancy, it having been revealed in a dream to his grandfather Astyages, king of the Medes, that the son of his daughter, Mandane, should one day govern Asia. The child was brought up by a shepherd, and, ignorant of his own birth, was carried before Astyages for having flogged, peasant as he was, the son of a Median noble. The culprit defended himself so well, that Astyages is reported to have recognised in him his grandson, and to have acknowledged him. The death of Cyrus has been thus recorded: Making war with Tomyris, queen of Scythia, he was taken prisoner; and the furious woman having cut off his head, threw it into a vessel of blood, exclaiming, 'Take thy fill of the blood for which thou hast thirsted!' Xenophon, however, states that he died in his bed at Parsagada, enjoining that his body might not be incased in gold and silver, but committed to the earth whence it came.

EVENTS.

Return of the Jews. Zerubbabel, grandson of Jehoiachin, king of Judah, was commissioned by Cyrus, 536, to commence the restoration of Jerusalem. As the foundations of the temple were laying, the old men, who

remembered the former building, wept when they reflected how little the work of a few poor exiles would resemble the glorious edifice of Solomon.

Invention of Tragedy. Thespis, a

poet of Athens, introduced into that city, upon a moveable stage, representations which are considered to have been the foundation of the serious drama, 535, and which drew from Solon sentiments of the most marked reprobation. "If falsehood and fiction," said he, "be tolerated in this manner, they will soon find their way amongst the common occupations of men." The *buskin*, or high shoe, worn by ancient actors of tragedy to add to their height, has caused the term, in modern times, to be used for tragedy itself; so the word *sock*, the

name of the shoe of the ancient actor of comedy, is understood to mean comedy itself. In the Greek tragedy, the leader of the company, or chorus, was called *coryphæus*, from *koruphe*, the tip of the head. He spoke for all the rest, or rather kept up the thread of the play between the acts, when the other persons of the drama were off the stage; and prepared the spectators for that which was to ensue on their return. Hence the term *coryphæus* is now applied to the leader of any sect or great undertaking.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Tarquinius, last of the seven kings of Rome, succeeded to the throne, 532, obtaining the title *superbus* by his haughty conduct. His first attempts were to undo the good his predecessor had done: the lustrum was abolished, the estates of the friends of *Servius* confiscated, and the army rendered subservient to the monarch's will. He was successful in his wars with the petty states on the borders of Rome; and, having subdued them all, sat down to enjoy the peace he had ensured. It was at this juncture that a sibyl came to the palace with nine books, and offered to sell them at a high price. The king disregarded her, and she disappeared; but she soon after returned after burning three of the volumes. She asked the same price for the six; and when *Tarquin* refused to buy them, she burned three more, and demanded the same sum for the three. The king, hereupon, bought the three, which were found to be full of prophecies relative to Rome; and the sibyl disappearing for ever, they were held in extreme veneration by the people till their destruction long after, during the troubles of *Sylla*. *Tarquin* classified the laws of the former kings, and completed the magnificent building of the capitol; but his tyranny in private matters, and the base conduct of his son *Sextus*, wrought his downfall. *Sextus* had violated *Lucretia*, the wife

of his cousin *Collatinus*; whereupon *Junius Brutus*, son of a nobleman, who had been unjustly deprived of his property by *Tarquin*, called upon the citizens to expel the whole family from Rome, and obtained a decree from the senate to that effect. Monarchy was abolished, and Rome declared henceforth a republic, to be ruled by two consuls annually chosen from the people. *Brutus* and *Collatinus* were the first consuls, 508.

Pythagoras, of *Samos*, visiting Egypt when young, imbibed many of the opinions of its priests. His success at the Olympic games obtained him the title of sophist, which he modestly changed to philosopher: hence the word philosopher. At forty he began teaching at *Crotona*; and though he supported the doctrine of the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, he believed in the immortality of man. The talkative, who wished to become his disciples, were compelled to be silent in his presence for five years; even the taciturn were not permitted to speak for two. 'Magister ipse dixit,' was the common mode of declaring to an incontrovertible truth, amongst his followers. *Pythagoras* guessed, if he could not prove, the solar system of the world; and recognised the diurnal rotation, as well as the annual revolution of the earth, the central position of the sun, and the revolutions of the planets; to which

he added a just idea of the nature of comets. mired in all ages for their elegance and neatness, though stained by Bacchanalian licence. He is said to have been choked by a grape-stone.

Anacreon of Teos, in Ionia, whose Greek lyric effusions have been ad-

mired in all ages for their elegance and neatness, though stained by Bacchanalian licence. He is said to have been choked by a grape-stone.

SECTION III.

CAMBYSES, KING OF PERSIA.

529 TO 521—8 YEARS.

Cambyses succeeded his father *Cyrus*, and in 525 conquered Egypt. In this expedition he killed the god *Apis*, and placed a number of dogs and cats at the head of his troops, knowing that his enemy would not attack those sacred animals. He sent 50,000 men to destroy the temple of *Jupiter Ammon*, and dismantled the statue of *Memnon*. Happening to wound himself with his sword whilst mounting his horse, a gangrene ensued, whereof he died; and the Egyptians affirmed it to occur on the same spot of the body as the mortal wound he had given *Apis*. Egypt continued a province of Persia until the time of *Alexander*.

EMINENT PERSON.

Polycrates, tyrant of *Samos*, celebrated for his continual good fortune, became master of the isles around him, and had one hundred ships of war. *Amasis*, king of Egypt, courted his

alliance, and was witness to his luck when *Polycrates* threw a precious jewel into the sea, which was soon after found in the stomach of a fish brought to the royal table.

SECTION IV.

DARIUS (HYSTASPES), KING OF PERSIA.

521 TO 485—36 YEARS.

Darius Hystaspes. On the death of *Cambyses*, seven of the Persian nobles agreed to select a ruler from their number. The lot was to fall on him whose horse should first neigh on reaching a certain spot; and *Hystaspes*, or *Gushtasp*, was the successful competitor. Having introduced fire-worship at the instigation of *Zoroaster*, this change of religion from sheer idolatry caused a sanguinary tumult amongst the various Persian tribes, which was with difficulty suppressed. The army of *Darius*, under *Datis* and *Artaphernes*, attacked the allied Greeks under *Miltiades* at *Marathon*, near *Athens*, 499; but was wholly defeated by the Greeks, with the loss of 200,000 killed and wounded. Not discouraged by this severe blow, *Darius* resolved to carry on the war in person, and ordered a still larger army to be levied; but death cut him off in the midst of his preparations, aged sixty-four.

EVENTS.

Consular rule at Rome began, on the expulsion of the *Tarquins*, 509; and continued till the battle of *Pharsalia*,

461 years. The two consuls not having power to raise troops, a *dictator* was occasionally appointed, vested with

authority to levy war and put to death without appeal; but he could only be in office six months. The first dictator was Lartius, 498. The *tribunes* were two, and could abolish the decrees of the senate by the word *veto*, or confirm them by subscribing the letter T. The *ædors* were two, and had the management of the public treasury. The *decemvirs* for a time supplanted the consuls, and were instituted first to draw up a sound code of laws. The *censors* were two, who kept account of the population, and inquired into the conduct of families.

Rise of Pontus. This province of Asia Minor was erected into a kingdom by Darius, who made Artabazes king. Its most celebrated monarch was Mithridates; and upon his death,

Pompey made it a province of Rome, though Marc Antony gave it afterwards a nominal sovereign. During the troubles of the eastern empire, the Comneni fled into Pontus, and reigned there 250 years, calling it the empire of Trebisonde: this was destroyed by Mohammed II., A. D. 1462.

Battle of Marathon, 490. The cause of this conflict was the burning of Sardis, a Persian city, by the Athenians. Mardonius, the general of Darius, had lost 300 ships and 20,000 men, before Datis and Artaphernes were sent to his aid only to increase the Persian disasters on the plain of Marathon. Mardonius never sat down to dinner without exclaiming, 'Remember the Athenians!'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Porsenna, king of Etruria, attacked Rome, 507, to restore the Tarquins, and gained many advantages at first; but he was so charmed with the devotion of the people to their country, that he felt inclined to conciliate rather than war with so noble a nation. *Cocles* stood at the head of a bridge, and supported the attack of the whole Etrurian army, while his companions behind were cutting off communication with the shore; and though wounded, he leaped in his armour into the Tiber, and escaped. *Mutius Scævola* was brought before Porsenna, for having attempted his life, and slain his secretary, in mistake for the king. To show that, as a Roman, he feared not torture, he thrust his hand into the fire of an altar, declaring there were 300 more youths determined on Porsenna's death, and that they regarded pain as little as he. The king hereupon made a treaty with the Romans, and never troubled them more.

Heraclitus, of Ephesus, called the weeping philosopher, spent his time in mourning the folly, frailty, and vicissitudes of human life. He refused the offers of Darius to reside at the Persian court.

Zoroaster, or Zerdusht, the Persian

philosopher, who prevailed on Darius to substitute the worship of fire for that of idols. The fire-worshippers still exist, as well as numerous stone buildings erected by Darius, for the followers of the philosopher.

Confucius, or Kong-fut-ze, a Chinese philosopher, of the imperial family of Shang, drew up a moral code of peculiar excellence, and was highly revered. To this day his descendants inherit the title and office of mandarins, being exempt, in common with the princes of the blood, from all taxes.

Lucius Junius Brutus, when his father and brother had been murdered by Tarquinius, affected insanity, lest he also should fall a victim; and the surname of Brutus was given him, for his supposed stupidity. He threw aside disguise on the death of Lucretia. Snatching the dagger with which she had killed herself, all reeking with her blood, he swore eternal hatred to the Tarquins, and obtained their expulsion. The stern equity of Brutus was awfully displayed during his consulate. His own two sons were brought before him, on an accusation of attempting the restoration of the exiled family; and so clear was their guilt, that they were condemned by

the parent himself to death. As was the duty of his office, he even sat to witness their execution. In the war which ensued with Porsenna, Brutus, in close combat with a prince of the dethroned family, lost his life 507.

Caius Martius Coriolanus, a noble Roman, so named for his victory at Corioli, being refused the consulship, took refuge amongst the Volsci, and led them against his country. His mother Volumnia and his wife Ver-

gilia induced him to spare Rome; whereupon he was murdered by the Volsci, 448. He is famous for his conscientious discharge of public duties without regard to popular clamour. Not all the assembled mob of the capitol, to whom he was ever opposed, could make him shrink from his determination; and, regardless alike of their blandishments and their menaces, he proceeded in that which he considered the path of patriotism.

SECTION V.

XERXES, KING OF PERSIA.

485 TO 464—21 YEARS.

Xerxes is only known to us through the Grecian historians. He attacked the Greeks with 3,000,000 men, 480; but this vast multitude was stopped at Thermopylæ by 300 Spartans under king Leonidas. The Persians were beginning to flee, when the base Ephialtes led a party of them up by a secret path in the mountains, and all the brave 300, save one, fell a sacrifice. But though *Xerxes* burned Athens, he was far less successful on the same day at Salamis, where he lost 200 ships, and gave Themistocles a complete victory. In 479, on one day again, Aristides and Pausanias thoroughly routed the Persians at Platæa; and 100,000 were put to flight by a very inferior number of Greeks at Mycale. Thus was Greece freed from the Persians; and *Xerxes* is said to have been murdered soon after his return home, by Artabanus, captain of his guards. *Xerxes* scorned all physical opposition; and cut through mount Athos, in Macedonia, to enable his army to reach the Greeks.

EVENT.

Fall of the Fabii. They were a noble and powerful Roman family, 306 men in number, descended, it was fabled, from Hercules; and so influential were they, that they determined, unassisted, to wage war with the city and state of Veii, twelve miles from Rome, 477; in which contest they fell, all excepting one, a boy.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Themistocles, the Athenian commander, was at the head of the state when *Xerxes* invaded Greece, and by stratagem induced the enemy to blockade the Ploponnesian fleet. The Greeks thus enclosed, fought, as Themistocles knew they would, with fury; and *Xerxes* was defeated at Salamis with almost the total loss of his navy. He then drew off the Persians to the Hellespont, by a threat that he would destroy the bridge they had constructed across it; and *Xerxes* hastened home,

leaving his troops an easy conquest to the Greeks. Themistocles, soon after this war, falling into disgrace, took refuge at the court of Artaxerxes I., and was presented by that monarch with three cities, to provide him, he facetiously observed, with bread, meat, and wine.

Aristides, whose virtue procured him the surname of *just*, was the rival of Themistocles, by whose influence he was banished from Athens for ten years. He was at the battle of Salamis, and, with Pausanias, defeated

ardonius at Platæa. He died so poor, that his funeral expenses were paid by the public, and his two daughters endowed by the Athenian treasury.

Pausanias, a Spartan general, who assisted *Aristides* at Platæa, having offended his countrymen, offered to betray Greece to the enemy. His intrigues were discovered by a youth, who had been intrusted with his let-

ters to Persia, and who conveyed them to the Ephori. Finding himself betrayed, he fled for refuge to the temple of *Minerva*; and as the sanctity of the place screened him from the violence of his pursuers, the building was surrounded with heaps of stones, the first of which was carried thither by the indignant mother of the unhappy man. He was thus starved to death, 471.

SECTION VI.

ARTAXERXES I. (*LONGIMANUS*), KING OF PERSIA.

464 TO 425—39 YEARS.

Artaxerxes, the *Abasuerus* of Scripture, succeeded his father *Xerxes*, and put to death his murderer. The beginning of his reign was troubled by the insurrection of his brother *Ilystaspes*; but when he had suppressed it, he applied himself to the affairs of government, and having reformed many abuses, celebrated the event by a general feast of rejoicing. The festival was commanded to continue 180 days in the city of *Susa*; where the king always passed his winter, on account of the mildness of the air, in a splendid palace of white marble, whose pillars were covered with gold and jewels. It was at one of these daily entertainments that he divorced his queen *Vashti* for disobeying his commands. The Egyptians, incited by the Athenians; having revolted, *Artaxerxes* went against them and obliged them to submit; and, seeing the dilapidated state of *Jerusalem* on his march, gave permission to his favourite Jewish cup-bearer, *Nehemiah*, to attempt its restoration, supplying him with money and men. Throughout his reign he had shown great kindness to the Jews; and even selected a queen from their nation. He was called *Longimanus* or *Macrochir*, because one of his hands exceeded the other in size.

EVENTS.

Death of Virginia. The Roman centurion *Virginius* had a daughter, of whom *Appius Claudius* the decemvir became enamoured; but in order to obtain her, one of his favourites publicly swore she was the daughter of a slave, and *Appius* from the judgment-seat pronounced her the property of his friend. When the matter was told to *Virginius*, he demanded to see his daughter; and plunging a poniard into her breast, exclaimed, 'This is all, my dearest daughter, that can save thee from the violence of a tyrant!' The soldiers meeting him with the reeking weapon in his hand, and learning the cause, *Appius* was seized; but he destroyed

himself in prison, and the decemviral power, after only two years' duration, was abolished, 449.

Jerusalem completed, 448, by *Nehemiah*, who finished the walls, the great buildings, and, above all, the temple which *Zerubbabel* had commenced—that temple, which, if not so glorious in point of architecture and riches as that of *Solomon*, was sanctified by the appearance therein of the Saviour of the World. *Nehemiah* governed his nation for the Persians thirty years. The Old Testament history ends twenty-four years after the restoration of *Jerusalem*; but the apocryphal writings carry on Jewish transactions 300 years further.

The first sacred War. Of the two wars so called, respecting the temple of Apollo at Delphi in Phocis, the first began 448; and in it the Athenians and Spartans were auxiliaries on opposite sides. This celebrated fane was constantly the object of plunder. It was customary for all who consulted its oracle to make rich presents to the god; and Cræsus had been known to add greatly to the sacred vessels and ornaments of the place. The Delphic oracle long controlled the councils of states, directed the course of armies, and decided the fate of kingdoms by its deputies in the Amphictyonic council.

The Metonic Cycle began 433. Meto, a mathematician of Athens, son of Pausanias, endeavoured to adjust the course of the sun to that of the moon, and to make the solar and lunar year commence at the same point of time. This invention is called the Metonic Cycle or golden number.

The Peloponnesian War. This most celebrated war of Greece continued for twenty-seven years between the Athenians and the general inhabitants of Peloponnesus, each party having allies. The power of Athens had, by the talent of Pericles, extended over entire Greece; and being appealed to by the people of Corinth to aid them against their rebellious colony, the Corcyreans, the Athenians, instead of granting their request, took the side of the revolters. The Corinthians on this applied to the Spartans, who, together with all the other Peloponnesian states, combined to put bounds to the dangerous encroachments of the Athenians. The war began 431, by the entry of Archidamus, king of Sparta, into the Attic territory at the head of 60,000 men, wasting the country as he proceeded with fire and sword; when Pericles, instead of opposing this force in the field, sent a fleet of 150 sail to ravage the coast of Peloponnesus. At the close of the first year's war, the loss had been great and the advantage

little on both sides: in the next year a plague broke forth at Athens, which carried off Pericles himself. Several consecutive years produced no more decisive result: but as the war took a naval turn, the Athenians tried by every means to draw away their opponents from Attica itself, and in 416, against the advice of Nicias, who had succeeded Pericles, sent Alcibiades with a fleet to assist the Sicilian states against the tyrannical power of Syracuse. The Corinthians and others instantly went to the aid of the Syracusans; and the seat of war was soon transferred to Sicily. After two years, the Peloponnesians were victorious, great part of the fleet of Athens was destroyed, and the allies of the latter power were alienated by the threats and bribery of the Corinthians. Under the able direction of Alcibiades, however, the Athenian fleet after this obtained a splendid victory; but Lysander, the Spartan admiral, fully avenged the loss at Ægospotamos, where, of 180 Athenian ships, only nine escaped, and Athens itself was invested. The siege was supported for a time with firmness: but at length a capitulation took place, and hard as the terms were, the Athenians assented to them. The fortifications of the harbours were to be destroyed, all the navy but twelve ships was to be given up, the tributary colonies were to be resigned, and Sparta was to be acknowledged paramount over Athens. The Spartans took possession of the city on the very day that the people had been accustomed to celebrate the victory of Salamis, 404; and thirty tyrants were appointed by Lysander to conduct the government of the state.

Augustan Age of Greece. During the reign of Artaxerxes I., Greece could boast of an unusual display of talent. Historians, philosophers, poets, painters, and sculptors, adorned the various states, and gave publicity to works whose mere fragments are now regarded with veneration. Twelve of the most eminent we will name.—*So-*

crates, the most illustrious of ancient philosophers, was born at Athens; and quitting his father's business of a statuary, turned his mind to loftier pursuits. Like the rest of his countrymen he entered the army, and saved the lives of his pupils, Xenophon and Alcibiades, in battle. He inured himself to hardships; and acquired that serenity of mind, and firmness of countenance, which the most appalling dangers could not change. The insults of malice or resentment be not only treated with contempt, but received them with a mind that expressed compassion for the depravity of human nature. Becoming a teacher of morality, he was attended by many noble pupils, whom he instructed in the groves of Academus, the Lyceum, or on the banks of the Illysus. When Aristophanes had ridiculed him on the stage, the fickle Athenians, who had till now regarded him as a superior being, allowed him to be accused of corrupting youth, and despising the gods; charges which he met with the calmness that might be expected from his character. His defence was full of simplicity and grandeur; but he was condemned by his outrageous judges to drink hemlock, 404; and died, resisting to the last the attempts of his friends to deliver him. Socrates was the founder of moral philosophy amongst the Athenians. He taught the immortality of the soul, future rewards and punishments, the spiritual worship of a Supreme Being, and the love of mankind as our brethren. He was an affectionate husband, a tender parent, a warlike soldier, and a patriotic citizen. His person was small, his countenance expressive but without beauty, his nose the converse of that feature amongst the Romans: yet, when engaged in the instruction of his disciples, his dignity, his majesty, and intellectual superiority, totally put out of view his natural defects. Xanthippe, his wife, celebrated for her morose disposition, was declared by the philosopher to be his best treasure,

because she constantly obliged him to cultivate the virtue of patience.—*Democritus*, the father of experimental philosophy (in opposition to the philosophy which had hitherto prevailed, and which was merely a belief in certain ascertained facts). He had an obscure notion of the system of gravitation; and held that the atoms of which the earth and planets are composed, would long since have united in the centre of the universe from their gravity, if the universe were not infinite, so as to have no centre. Could he have built upon the theory of Pythagoras (observes Professor Powell), and taken the sun as that centre, the Newtonian system of gravitation would thus only have been to be proved. He also assumed what has since been fully confirmed by telescopic observation, that the milky way was formed by clusters of minute stars. But from the time of Democritus, Hippocrates, and Aristotle, who saw the errors of the old philosophy, until that of the great Bacon, the study declined; and general truths, founded on the observation of preceding ages, constituted what is usually meant by the term philosophy. The ancients, it has been aptly said, listened to nature and recorded all she spoke, but asked her no questions. Democritus is called the laughing philosopher; because, in opposition to Heraclitus, he amused himself with watching the progress of men from one folly to another, till by their own want of wisdom they had become unhappy.—*Hippocrates*, the most famous physician of antiquity, stayed the plague at Athens, and was rewarded with a golden crown. When Artaxerxes offered to support him in splendour, he modestly declined, affirming it was his duty to serve his country. From his observations, medicine has acquired no small advantage; and the people of Cos in the Cyclades still show a house wherein they affirm he was born.—*Herodotus*, the father of history, who being driven from Halicarnassus, in Asia Minor, on ac-

count of his expulsion of the tyrant Lygdamis, travelled over Italy, Greece, and Egypt, and repeated at the Olympic games a history he had composed in the Ionic dialect. It relates the wars from Cyrus to the fight of Mycale, and gives an account of the most famous nations in the then known world.—*Euripides*, the tragic poet, celebrated for giving force to the tender passions. Sublimity and a high degree of polish are every where visible in his productions, nineteen only of which are now known. He was so great an enemy to the fair sex as to be called *misogunes*, or woman-hater; and from this aversion arose the diabolical machinations which appear in his female characters. He died at the court of Archelaus, king of Macedon, who patronized him, but whose dogs tore the poor poet in pieces, when in a solitary walk.—*Aristophanes*, of whose comedies eleven remain. The wit of them is extraordinary; but they abound in obscenity, and his attack upon the venerable Socrates in his "Clouds," can never be too deeply censured. As a brilliant writer, Aristophanes has had many admirers; and even St. Chrysostom would sleep with his works under his pillow.—*Sophocles*, the tragic poet, who commanded the Athenian armies jointly with Pericles. He was the pupil of *Æschylus*, and the rival of Euripides. Only seven of his tragedies are extant; and they show the author to have been a master of the sublime and terrible. His children were so undutiful as to declare him mad, to inherit his property; whereon he read his *Œdipus in Colonus* at the Areopagus, and was enthusiastically acquitted.—*Æschylus*, likewise a soldier and poet; was at Marathon, Salamis, and Platea. Seven of his tragedies remain: but their style is obscure, and wholly inferior to that of the other Greek dramatists. Being informed by the oracle he was to die by the fall of a house, he took up his abode in the fields; where, it is said, an eagle flying over his bald head with a tortoise in her claws, took it for a

stone, and letting her prey fall, killed him on the spot.—*Pindar*, the lyric poet of Thebes. When a boy, a swarm of bees settled upon his face while asleep, and left their combs on his lips; a fair omen of his future excellence. His hymns and poems were repeated before the most crowded assemblies in the temples of Greece; and the priestess of Delphi declared it to be the will of Apollo that Pindar should receive half the first-fruits annually heaped on his altars. His statue was the object of veneration during six centuries; and Alexander, when he reduced the city to ashes, spared the poet's residence. His odes are his only extant compositions; and for sublimity, energy, harmony of numbers, and elegance of diction, have never been surpassed.—*Empedocles*, the Grecian philosopher, adopted the metempsychosis, and wrote a poem wherein he described the various transmigrations he had suffered; having been a girl, a boy, a shrub, a bird, a fish, and lastly Empedocles. Wishing to be deemed immortal, he leaped unseen into the crater of *Ætna*; but the volcano throwing up one of his sandals his design was frustrated.—*Phidias*, the statuary, was patronized by Pericles; but left Athens to live at Elis, because the people took umbrage at the introduction of his own face on the shield of his statue of Minerva. He constructed for the temple of Olympia at Elis, a Jupiter of ivory and gold of so colossal a size, that, representing the god sitting on his throne, the head nearly touched the roof of the building, which was sixty English feet in height. 'Those who go,' says Lucian, 'to the temple, suppose that they see, not the gold extracted from the mines of Thessaly, or the ivory of the Indies, but the son of Saturn himself, whom Phidias had made to come down from Olympus.'—*Polygnotus*, a painter, who adorned one of the public porticoes of Athens with pictures, representing the events of the Trojan war. When he refused

the offer of the Amphictyons to reward his labours with any thing he might ask, they issued an order throughout the cities of Greece, that he should be maintained henceforth at the public expense, wherever he might go.

Advancement of Esther. It has been shown that Artaxerxes devoted 180 days to feasting and otherwise entertaining the princes and governors of the empire; after which, to please the less exalted portion of his subjects, he devoted seven days to their especial gratification. The feasting was now carried on in a court of the palace-garden, where were white, green, and blue hangings, fastened with cords of fine linen and purple to silver rings and pillars of marble: the reclining couches were of gold and silver, and placed upon a pavement of red, blue, white, and black marble. The drinking-vessels were of pure gold; and every man was permitted to take of the royal wine as he pleased. Meanwhile Vashti, the queen, gave a similar entertainment to the ladies in an apartment of the palace. It was during the last day's festival, when the heart of the king was merry with wine, that he sent seven of his chamberlains to bring Vashti into the royal presence, that he might gratify his guests with a sight of her beauty. The queen, however, refused compliance; whereon the king, in a rage, called upon his wise men to declare how he ought to punish her disobedience. And Memucan answered before the king and the princes, 'Vashti, the queen, hath not done wrong to the king only, but also to all the princes, and to all the people that are in all the provinces of the kingdom. For this deed of the queen shall come abroad unto all women, so that they shall despise their husbands in their eyes, when it shall be reported, that the king commanded Vashti the queen to be brought in before him, but she came not. If it please the king, let there go a royal commandment from him, and let it be written among the laws of the Persians and the Medes, that it

be not altered, that Vashti come no more before the king; and let the king give her royal estate unto another that is better than she. And when the king's decree which he shall make shall be published throughout all his empire (for it is great), all the wives shall give to their husbands honour, both to great and small.' And the saying pleased the king and the princes; and the king did according to the word of Memucan. Now in Susa, lived a Jew named Mordecai, whose ancestor, of the tribe of Benjamin, had been amongst the captives of Nebuchadnezzar; and he brought up as his own daughter his youthful cousin Hadassah, whose name in Persian was Esther, and who had lost both her parents. As she was placed among the assembly of beautiful women whence the king was to select a consort in place of Vashti, the monarch noticed her, and made her his queen; advancing Mordecai to an office about the court. It was not long before two of the chamberlains conspired to assassinate the king; and the thing was known to Mordecai, who told it to Esther, and Esther certified the king of the same in Mordecai's name. And when inquisition was made, it was found to be true, and the guilty pair were hanged on a tree. After these things did the king promote Haman, a descendant of the wicked Agag, king of the Amalekites, whom king Saul had spared, and set his seat above all the princes that were with him. And all the king's servants in the gate bowed and revered Haman; but Mordecai bowed not, because of the curse under which he lay as an Amalekite. Haman, infuriated at this want of respect, sought to destroy all the Jews in the kingdom, even the people of Mordecai; and having represented to the monarch that there were persons scattered throughout Persia, who habitually broke his laws, he obtained a decree for the destruction of the Jews, and the confiscation of their property. And the letters were sent by posts, into all the king's

provinces, to destroy, to kill, and to cause to perish, all Jews both young and old, little children and women, in one day. The posts went out, being hastened by the king's commandment; and the king and Haman sat down to drink, as the Persians were accustomed to do, when debating on affairs of state. On the other hand, Mordecai, when he heard what was done, put on sackcloth; and going into the midst of the city, cried with a loud and bitter cry. Then called Esther for her chamberlain, and sent him to Mordecai, who told him of all that had happened; and giving him the copy of the decree to show to Esther, desired him to charge her that she should make supplication to the king on behalf of her people. Esther said it was death to any to come uncalled before the king; but, directing him to fix a three days' fast for the Jews in Susa, she sent him word, 'I will *then* go in unto the king; and if I perish, I perish.' Now, on the third day, Esther, gloriously adorned, took two maids, leaning upon the one, while the other followed bearing up her train, and having passed through all the doors, stood before the king, who sat upon his royal throne, clothed in his robes of majesty, glittering with gold and precious stones. On seeing Esther, he looked very fiercely upon her, whereon she fell down and fainted; but the king, in fear, leaped from his seat, and taking her in his arms till she revived, comforted her with loving words, laying on her neck the golden sceptre, and saying, 'What wilt thou queen Esther? and what is thy request? it shall be given thee to the half of the kingdom.' Esther entreated that the king and Haman would honour her with their presence that day at a banquet which she had prepared, and that she might be allowed to prefer her petition during the feast. Ahasuerus complied; and during the repast, forgot not to call upon her to make known her wish, assuring her, as before, that it should be granted to the half of his kingdom. 'If,' said she,

'it please the king to grant my petition, let the king and Haman come to the banquet that I shall prepare for them *to-morrow*, and I will *then* prefer my request.' Haman, overjoyed that no man but himself and the king had been invited by Esther, conceived he could obtain whatever he should demand of the king; and resolved to ask for the death of Mordecai. But the king had a restless night; and calling the servants who ministered to him to his bed, commanded them to read the records of his reign. When they came to the conspiracy of the chamberlains, and its discovery by Mordecai, 'What honour and dignity,' said the king, 'hath been done to Mordecai for this?' and finding that nothing had been done, he resolved on duly rewarding a man who had saved him from death. So when Haman, purposing to demand the hanging of Mordecai, entered the palace in the morning, the king asked him to say 'what should be done for the man whom the king delighted to honour.' Haman, thinking in his heart, 'to whom would the king delight to do honour more than myself?' answered, 'that royal apparel and the crown should be put on such an one; and that he should be made to ride in procession through the streets of the city on the king's own horse.' 'Make haste, then,' said the king, 'and do even as thou hast said for Mordecai, the Jew.' The disappointed Haman, when he had performed a ceremony so little to his taste, retired mourning to his home, but forgot not to attend the second banquet of the queen; at which the king again asked Esther, 'What is thy petition, queen Esther? and it shall be granted thee, even to the half of the kingdom.' At which words the queen, encouraged by the respect which had been shown that day to Mordecai, casting away fear, declared that herself and her people were sold to be destroyed, to be slain, and to perish! 'Had we been sold,' she continued, 'for bondmen and bondwomen, I had held my tongue!'

Then the king, in astonishment, exclaimed, 'Who is he, and where is he, that durst presume in his heart to do so?' 'The adversary, and enemy,' replied Esther, 'is this wicked Haman.' On this, the monarch, agitated in soul, rose and went into the palace-garden; but returning quickly with certain of the chamberlains, the unhappy Haman, who was supplicating the queen in a prostrate attitude, had his face covered, according to custom, with a veil or napkin, and was carried forth to be hanged without delay on the gallows, fifty cubits high, which he had prepared for the destruction of Mordecai. Then the king said to Esther and Mordecai, 'Write ye also for the Jews, as it liketh you, in the king's name, and seal it with the king's ring: for the writing which is written in the king's name, and sealed with the king's ring, may no man reverse.' Then were the king's scribes called, and it was written as Mordecai commanded to the Jews, and to the rulers of the 127 provinces, which were from India to Ethiopia, that the Jews which were in every city should stand for

their life to destroy, to slay, and to cause to perish, all that should assault them; and to take the spoil of them for a prey. And the letters were sealed with the king's ring, and posts conveyed them into the 127 provinces of Persia, on horses and on mules, on camels and on dromedaries, being hastened and pressed on by the royal decree. And Mordecai went out from the presence of the king in royal apparel of blue and white, and with a great crown of gold, and with a garment of fine linen and purple; and in every province, and in every city, the Jews had joy and gladness, a feast and a good day. But on the day which had been appointed for the slaughter, the Jews rose in every city of the empire against their enemies, killing in Susa alone 500, and hanging the ten sons of Haman: and two days called *Purim* (or days of lot) have ever since been annually observed by the Jews, with great rejoicings, feasting, and gifts to the poor, in commemoration of the deliverance procured for their nation by the instrumentality of Esther.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Cimon, governor of Athens, was son of the heroic Miltiades. The money he obtained from the Persians during his wars, he applied to the improvement of the city; leaving his own magnificent gardens open to the public. He was opposed to *Pericles*; as the latter espoused the popular side, while he supported the cause of the aristocracy. So closely did he prosecute the war with Artaxerxes, that the king was at length obliged to sue for peace; and it was granted by *Cimon*, on the sole condition that all the Grecian cities in Asia Minor should be declared free from the Persian yoke. *Cimon*, who thus gloriously ended the fifty-one years' contest between Athens and Persia, possessed all the qualities that ennoble the hero, and adorn the man; and was the last of the Grecians who, with a due esteem for popularity, was

ever on his guard against the abuses of democracy.

Pericles, ruler soon after *Cimon*, at Athens, was of a noble family. Espousing the popular party, he had much diminished the power of the court of Areopagus, and had even occasioned *Cimon* and *Thucydides* to be banished by ostracism. When advanced to the head of the state, he ruled it fifteen years alone; and, like *Cimon*, devoted his wealth to the prosperity of the city. He made war against the Spartans, and restored the temple of Delphi to the care of the Phocians, who had been illegally deprived of that honourable trust. His ambition began the Peloponnesian war; but the fatal plague did not suffer him long to conduct it; being carried off, after seeing all his children perish by the scourge, 429. When

expiring, he observed, it was his greatest consolation to reflect that not a citizen of Athens had been compelled to put on mourning through his mismanagement. The people lamented him as one of their most gifted rulers, 'upon whose tongue,' said the poets, 'soft persuasion with all her attractions had ever rested.' (*Ostracism* was the writing of the name of the person proposed to be exiled upon an oyster-shell; and he whose name was most frequently inscribed was adjudged to

suffer the punishment. *Petalism* was exile by the name written on an olive-leaf.)

Aspasia, a female of Miletus, who taught eloquence at Athens, and had even Socrates amongst her pupils. She possessed the merit of superior excellence in mind as well as person, and her instructions helped to form some of the most eloquent orators of Greece. Her morals, however, were defective, though she became the wife of Pericles.

SECTION VII.

DARIUS II. (*NOTHUS*), KING OF PERSIA.

423 TO 404—19 YEARS.

Darius Nothus. Xerxes succeeded his father, Longimanus, but was assassinated by his half-brother Sogdianus, soon after his accession; and he was in turn deposed by his half-brother Darius Nothus, who smothered the usurper in hot ashes. By his wife, Parysatis, Darius had two sons, who became deadly enemies through the intrigues of their mother; she having induced the king to make Cyrus, the younger, governor of the recovered states of Asia Minor, that he might have power equal to that of his elder brother. The reign of Darius was disturbed by the insurrections of the tributary states, but especially by the revolt of the Egyptians, who in 414 declared Amyrtæus their king. His death took place 404; and his last words contained a direction to his son, Artaxerxes, to rule the kingdom by the dictates of religion and justice.

EVENTS.

The Agrarian Law, to distribute amongst the Roman people equally all the lands which the armies had gained by conquest, was first proposed to the senate, 416, by the consul Cassius Vicellinus, and rejected; whereon so violent a contest arose between the senate and the plebeians, that although tranquillity was obtained after a while, the parties never again became firmly reconciled. The tribune Gracchus eventually, as will be shown, obtained authority for the enactment; a law which proved fatal, under Cæsar, to the same liberty it was intended to secure.

Usurpation of Dionysius the Elder. It was in 405 that, having been intrusted with a general's authority to drive off the Carthaginians, who had

obtained a settlement in Sicily, he declared himself king of Syracuse. The soldiers supported him because he doubled their pay; but he turned out a tyrant; and his subterranean cave in form of a human ear, which had communication with a room wherein he could hear what was said by those whom his suspicion and cruelty had confined, still exists. The catapult, for discharging showers of stones, was his invention.

The Dismantling of Athens. This celebrated city rapidly declined after its dismantling by Lysander, 404. Dr. Clarke thus describes its present remains, which he approached by sea with the most elevated sensations. 'The Parthenon appeared first, above a long chain of hills in the front; the whole

long backed by a lofty mountainous ridge. As we drew near to the walls, we beheld the vast citadel, crowned with temples, that originated in the veneration once paid to the memory of the illustrious dead. The remains of Hadrian's temple of Olympian Jove appeared full in view between the citadel and the Ilissus : high upon our left rose the Acropolis, in the most impressive grandeur : on the western side of it the hill of Areopagus : and beyond all, appeared the beautiful plain of Athens, bounded by mount Hymettus. We rode towards the craggy rock of the citadel ; and thence continuing to skirt the base of the Acropolis, the road winding towards the north, we saw upon our left, scooped in the solid rock, the circular sweep on which the Athenians were wont to assemble to hear the plays of Æschylus. We proceeded towards the east, to ascend mount Anchesmus, and to enjoy, in one panoramic survey, the glorious prospect presented from its summit, of all the antiquities and natural beauties in the Athenian plain. We reached the commanding eminence of the mount once occupied by

a temple of Jupiter, which has been succeeded by a small Christian sanctuary, dedicated to St. George. Here a Democritus might sit and laugh at the pomps and vanities of the world, or an Heraclitus weep over its manifold misfortunes. The lofty rocks of the Acropolis, crowned with its majestic temples, the Parthenon, Erectheum, &c., constitute the central object. In the foreground is the modern city of Athens, with its gardens, ruins, mosques, and walls, spreading into the plain beneath the citadel. On the right is the temple of Theseus ; and on the left, that of Jupiter Olympius. Proceeding to the south and east, the view beyond the citadel displays the Areopagus, Ilissus, the sites of the temple of Ceres and the Lyceum, with the fountain Calirhoe. In a parallel circuit with a more extended radius, are seen the hills and defile of the Via Sacra, the Piræus, Salamis, Ægina, the more distant isles, and Hymettus. A similar circuit, but still more extended, embraces the mountains beyond Megara, Corinth, and the Ægean and very remote islands.'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Lysander of Sparta, who dismantled Athens, and placed thirty tyrants over the people. The glory of having put an end to the Peloponnesian war of twenty-seven years, gave wings to his ambition ; and he had resolved on declaring himself king of Sparta, when a war with Thebes called him off, in which he fell.

Alcibiades, the pupil of Socrates, commanded on the side of Athens

against Syracuse in the Peloponnesian war ; but finding, on his return home, that he had been accused of impiety, and that his goods had been confiscated, he fled to Persia. The Athenians recalled him, and gave him a triumph ; but his expedition against Cyme failing, he again escaped to Persia, and was assassinated by the satrap Pharnabazus, at the instigation of Lysander.

SECTION VIII.

ARTAXERXES II. (*MNEMON*), KING OF PERSIA.

404 TO 358—46 YEARS.

Artaxerxes had scarcely received the reins of government, when his brother Cyrus attempted his dethronement. Assembling in his principality of Asia Minor, a mingled force of barbarians and mercenary Greeks, he marched from

Sardis towards Babylon with 113,000 men ; but being met at Cunaxa by the king, was there slain. This revolt suppressed, Artaxerxes compelled to sub-mission Agesilaus, king of Sparta, who had opposed his satrap, Tissaphernes, when oppressing the Greek cities in Asia Minor. He next reduced Cyprus, where Evagoras, whose ancestors had ruled over a part of the isle, had seized upon the remainder, which was a Persian colony. He now attacked Egypt, with a hope of re-adding it to his empire ; but though aided by Iphicrates, the skilful Athenian general (whose mercenaries were called by way of eminence, *Iphicratians*), he could not seize the new king Nectanebus ; so that the views of the expedition were frustrated. The last years of Artaxerxes were harassed by domestic troubles. He was compelled to put his own son Darius to death for a conspiracy against his person ; and soon after, Ochus, another son, murdered two of his brothers to clear the way for himself when his father should die. These atrocities are said to have broken the aged king's heart, 358.

EVENTS.

The Expedition of Cyrus. This young prince began his attempt upon his brother's throne with gaining over the cities under Tissaphernes, which quickly produced a war with that governor ; and under the pretence of going against him, Cyrus obtained great aid in money, men, and ships from the Spartans. At length, having collected 13,000 Greek mercenaries in addition to 100,000 soldiers of other nations, he set out from Sardis, directing his march towards Upper Asia ; the army being ignorant of the object of the expedition. On reaching Tarsus, the Greeks, suspecting they were marching against the king of Persia, refused to proceed, until Cyrus by presents and promises had worked upon them. On arriving at Cunaxa, near Babylon, the prince found his brother, with 900,000 men, ready to engage him ; whereupon, leaping from his chariot, he commanded his troops to stand to their arms. The Greeks having routed the wing opposite to them at the first onset, Cyrus was, with loud shouts, proclaimed king by those who stood round him ; but that prince, perceiving his brother prepare to attack him in flank, advanced with 600 chosen horse, dispersed the king's guards, and engaged the monarch with great fury hand to hand. Cyrus had already wounded his brother, when the guards, recovering their ground, discharged their

arrows at the prince, who, throwing himself headlong upon the king, was pierced through by his javelin and slain. Meanwhile, the Greeks having defeated the enemy's left wing commanded by Tissaphernes, and the king's right wing having put to flight Cyrus's left, each party, ignorant of what had passed elsewhere, imagined it had gained the victory. When, however, the adherents of Cyrus were convinced of their leader's death, they sent deputies to Ariæus, their commander-in-chief, offering him, as conquerors, the crown of Persia. Ariæus told them in reply that he intended to set out early in the morning towards Ionia, and advised them to join him in the night. They followed his direction, and commenced their return to Greece. They were at a vast distance from home, and had to force their way through an immense tract of the enemy's country. But valour and resolution mastered all difficulties ; and, in spite of a powerful army, which constantly harassed them, they made good their passage (2325 miles) to the Greek cities on the Euxine sea. This retreat (the longest ever made through an enemy's country) was conducted, after the death of Clearchus, by Xenophon ; who has given us in his *Anabasis* a most elegant and interesting history of it.

Expulsion of the Thirty Tyrants.

Although Athens had been compelled to submit for a while to the power of Sparta, she was enabled to expel the rulers placed over her by Lysander in less than three years, through the patriotic exertions of Thrasybulus, 401.

The *Corinthian War* began 395, by the combination of the Athenians, Thebans, Corinthians, and Argives, against Lacedæmon. The most famous battles were at Coronea and Leuctra, the latter of which closed the contest, after a duration of twenty-four years, 371. The Spartans lost at Leuctra 4000 men, with their king Cleombrotus; while the Thebans their assailants, led by Epaminondas, counted but 300 dead. From that period the Spartans never could regain the rank which they had held for 600 years; so that, during the rule of Artaxerxes, the two most potent states of Greece fell to decay.

Capture of Veii. Camillus, the Roman general, took this city of Etruria, a place larger and more opulent than Rome itself, after ten years' siege, 395.

Rome plundered by the Gauls, 390; when Brennus and his barbaric horde entered the city, and would have wholly destroyed it but for Camillus, who encouraged the people to drive out the invaders. The Gauls climbed the Tarpeian rock during the night; and were on the point of taking the capitol, when the cackling of some geese awoke the sentinels. Camillus was dictator five times, censor once, three times inter-rex, twice a military tribune, and had four triumphs.

Return of the Messenians, 370, to Peloponnesus, a century after their ancestors had been driven out by the Spartans.

Plæcian Consuls chosen. Licinius obtained this radical reform at Rome,

365. The common people had often forced their aristocratic adversaries to make concessions, by *seceding*: that is, retiring in a body to some neighbouring hill, where they would remain until their petitions were granted. By their first secession they obtained the right of choosing tribunes from their body, whose sanction was necessary to give every law validity; but when Licinius, the tribune, of his own accord, obtained this act in their favour, the ruin of the patrician party was supposed to be sealed.

Devotion of Curtius. An earthquake, 362, made a chasm in the forum at Rome; and it being predicted that it would not close until the most precious thing in the capitol was thrown thereinto, Curtius declared *courage* to be meant; and, fully armed, leaped into the abyss. The ground, as we may imagine, instantly closed upon him.

Brief Supremacy of Thebes. Bæotia, although one of the most ancient states of Greece, had never been able to influence the rest until ruled by Pelopidas and Epaminondas, who are celebrated as much for their mutual friendship as for their patriotism. No sooner had the interests of Sparta prevailed at Thebes, and the friends of independence been banished, than Pelopidas, who was in the number of exiles, entered the city and freed it from foreign masters. He was unanimously placed at the head of the government; and while Epaminondas shared with him the sovereign power, it was to the valour and prudence of both that the Thebans were indebted for the victory of Leuctra, after which their state became the dictator and arbiter of Greece. But as with them the glory of Thebes arose, so was its power extinguished by their death, after the brief duration of eight years.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Xenophon, the pupil of Socrates, joined the expedition of Cyrus. His consummate skill was displayed after the defeat of Cunaxa; and by his in-

trepidity alone the 10,000 reached their homes. After his return to Athens, he joined Agesilaus in Asia, and shared that monarch's glory; but it was his

misfortune to have to fight against his own people. On his second return, he was banished to Scillus for aiding Cyrus; and resolving to settle there, he built a temple to Diana, and greatly ornamented a purchased estate. War, however, drove him, at the age of ninety, from his elegant retreat to Corinth, where he soon after died. The fame of Xenophon rests on his *Anabasis*, and his philosophical romance of the *Cyropædia*: the former is one of the most attractive military histories ever penned; while it is, as a composition, a model of simplicity and good sense. The euphony and neatness of Xenophon's style have procured him the titles of the Attic bee and the Athenian muse.

Plato, the descendant of Codrus and disciple of Socrates, travelled over Greece, Italy, and Egypt, and then taught in the groves of Academus, near Athens; where he presided with dignity forty years. For once only did he quit his disciples: this was at the request of Dionysius the younger, who wanted his advice. Plato was unostentatious: his dress was plain, his manner meek even to diffidence, and he could never bear to be recognised as the philosopher of the academy. When he came to the Olympic games, he resided with a family who knew not his name; and when, on their visiting Athens, they called where he had directed them, to find some one who could show them Plato, he astonished them by pointing to himself. His moderate diet preserved him from the effects of the plague which ravaged Athens; nor could he be persuaded by his physicians to remove, declaring he would not advance a single step to gain the top of Athos, were he promised the longevity of the people of that mountain. The works of Plato are mostly in the form of dialogue, wherein he speaks by the mouth of others, making rarely mention of himself. His speculative mind was employed in examining things divine and human; and his opinions still continue to influence mankind, and to divide

their sentiments. All science he made to consist in reminiscence. He compared the soul to a small republic, of which the reasoning and judging powers were stationed in the head; and of which the senses were its sentinels; by the irascible part men assert their dignity, repel injuries, and scorn danger; and by the concupiscible provide the support of the body. Justice was produced by the regular rule of reason, and by the submission of the passions; and prudence he made to arise from the strength and acuteness of the soul, without which no other virtues could exist. To illustrate his dogma that the soul was immortal, he wrote his *Republic*, wherein he shows that it is possible for a community of men to exist, who, impressed with the certainty of the soul being enshrined in a body which it will at death throw off, may so go through the world as ultimately to gain eternal happiness. In the physical sciences, Plato has the credit of originating the theory of conic sections, and of geometrical analysis; and to the principles developed in these discoveries must be attributed many of the most valuable inventions of modern science.

Malachi, the last of the Jewish prophets who flourished before the Gospel dispensation, completed the canon of the Old Testament 400 years before the advent of Christ. He was of the tribe of Zebulun; and foretold the coming of John the Baptist.

Zeuxis, a painter of Sicily, who settled in Greece; but as all his works have perished, we are left to judge of his inferiority to Parrhasius of Ephesus by his recorded contest with that painter at Athens. When they had produced their respective pieces, the birds came to pick with avidity the grapes which Zeuxis had painted. Immediately Parrhasius exhibited his piece, and Zeuxis said, 'Remove your curtain that we may see the painting.' The curtain was the painting, and Zeuxis acknowledged himself conquered by exclaiming, 'Zeuxis has

deceived birds ; but Parrhasius has deceived Zeuxis himself !

Damon, a Pythagorean philosopher, when condemned to death by *Dionysius*, obtained leave to settle his domestic affairs, on promise of returning at a stated hour to the place of execution. *Pythias*, his friend, pledged himself to undergo the punishment should not *Damon* keep his word. *Damon* however returned at the appointed moment ; and *Dionysius* was so struck with the fidelity of the pair, that he pardoned *Damon*, and admitted both to his confidence.

Damocles, a courtier of *Dionysius* the Elder, having admired his magnificence, was offered by the tyrant to be king for a day. *Damocles* ascended the throne ; but while he gazed on the surrounding splendour, he was terrified on perceiving a sword suspended by a horsehair over his head, in token of the dangers of empire. It is needless to say how hastily he abdicated.

Thucydides, having failed of success when sent to relieve *Amphipolis*, in the Peloponnesian war, was banished by the Athenians ; whereon he resolved to fight no more, but to record the events of that memorable contest. His history goes only to the twenty-first year, and was finished by *Xenophon* and *Theopompus*. His dialect is the Attic, vigorous and elegant ; and he stands unequalled for the fire of his descriptions, and the spirit of his military harangues.

Timotheus, of *Miletus*, noted for his skill as a lyrist ; to whom the Ephesians gave 1000 pieces of gold for a performance in honour of *Diana*.

Chabrias, an Athenian general, who assisted the *Boeotians* against *Agésilas*. In this campaign, he ordered his soldiers to put one knee on the ground, and firmly to rest their spears upon the other, and cover themselves with their shields, by which means they daunted the enemy ; and he had a statue raised to his honour in that posture.

Agésilas, king of *Sparta*, of the

family of *Eurysthenes*, was contemporary with king *Cleombrotus*, and one of the most interesting characters of ancient Greece. His energetic mind made ample amends for his small stature and lameness ; and so ingratiating were his manners, that he was fined by the *Ephori* for monopolizing the affections of the *Lacedæmonians*. When *Artaxerxes*, in the Peloponnesian war, was resolved to reduce the Greek cities in *Asia Minor*, *Agésilas* obtained many signal advantages over him ; and *Sparta* would, by his activity, have preceded *Alexander* in the conquest of *Persia*, had he not been recalled to defend it against the *Thebans*. On this occasion he observed he had been driven from *Asia* by 30,000 of the great king's archers, alluding to the bribery of *Artaxerxes*, who to induce the *Spartans* to leave *Asia Minor*, had given the state 30,000 *darics* ; a gold coin, stamped with an archer on horseback. He attacked the *Thebans* at *Chæronea* with some advantage, and was next employed against the *Corinthians* ; but the dishonourable peace with *Persia*, called that of *Antalcidas*, 387, whereby the Greek cities of *Asia Minor* again became tributary to *Persia*, baffled his patriotic efforts. He soon after took *Thebes*, the *Boeotian* capital ; but the subjugation of *Sparta* at *Leuctra* was the consequence. The passion for enterprise of *Agésilas*, however, was by no means extinct ; for, at the age of eighty-four he commanded some mercenaries in aid of *Lachos*, a competitor for the *Egyptian* throne. The *Egyptians*, on his arrival, eagerly crowded to behold a leader of whom they had heard so much ; and could not conceal their disappointment on seeing a little old man, meanly clad, sitting on the grass by the sea-side. He was, however, always the first to jest upon his own person ; and when he heard some one declare that he was the mouse of the mountain in labour, he put his men with speed into battle array, and at once surprised and terrified his de-

tractors. Instead of supporting Iachos, he placed his competitor Nectanebis on the throne, having, in the true spirit of a Spartan, taken the stronger side. His death occurred on his voyage home from this expedition. His pleasant caution to a courtier, who caught him riding upon a stick to amuse his children, has been often quoted: 'Tell no one what you have seen,' said he, 'until you are yourself a father.'

Archytas, of Tarentum, a Pythagorean philosopher, and general of the Tarentines, was Plato's instructor in geometry, and one of the first who applied the theory of mathematics to practical purposes. Many marvellous stories are related of his skill in mechanics; such as his constructing a pigeon which could fly, &c.

Aristippus, founder of the Cyrenaic sect, studied under Socrates; but the rules of that great moralist were too strict for him. Opening a school at Cyrene, in Africa, he declared that pleasure was the ultimate object of

human pursuit; but that virtuous motives and actions were essential to pleasure. The contradiction involved in this definition is evident enough; and substituting, as the theory does, pleasurable enjoyment for moral restraint, as the foundation of happiness, it was easily overturned by every man of the world brought to ruin by having followed its dictates.

Antisthenes, founder of the Cynics, was born at Athens, and having attended the lectures of Socrates, enlarged upon those which treated of temperance. He went about the streets attired in a threadbare coat, permitted his beard to grow, and made but one meal in the day. His maxims were that to be virtuous was to be happy, and that all virtue consisted in action. One of his pupils having asked him what philosophy had taught him, he replied, "To live happily by myself." The Cynics were so called from *kunos*, a dog, because of their churlish habits.

SECTION IX.

OCHUS, KING OF PERSIA.

358 TO 338—20 YEARS.

Ochus, son of the last king, having put to death eighty of his relatives, considered himself firmly seated on the throne. He had to contend with various tributary states, which he with difficulty reduced, especially Phœnicia, where 40,000 persons burned themselves in Sidon alone, to avoid falling into his hands. With 10,000 Greek mercenaries he marched against Egypt, and in his way thither met with a remarkable loss of men in lake Serbonis, in Syria, which, when the south wind prevails, is covered with sand, so as not to be distinguishable from the land. Ochus, from the want of guides, saw troop after troop sink beneath the deceptive covering, without the possibility of affording them aid; nevertheless he effected the conquest of Egypt, dethroning Nectanebis II., and returning to Babylon laden with spoil. His treatment, however, of the god Apis excited so much indignation in the mind of his eunuch, Bagoas, an Egyptian, that he murdered him, and placed the king's son, Arses, on the throne.

EVENTS.

Second Sacred War. The Phocians, who were guardians of the temple of Delphi, having been fined by the Amphictyons, for ploughing a piece of ground sacred to Apollo, refused to pay the required sum; and when the Thebans entered their state to compel them, 358, they seized the treasures of

be god to raise troops. For many years the Thebans and their allies assailed them in vain; but at last Philip of Macedon defeated them at Megaresia, and made them tributary, 346.

Expulsion of Dionysius the Tyrant. He had succeeded his father, the elder Dionysius, as king of Syracuse, and by the advice of Dion, his brother-in-law, had invited Plato to his court. When that philosopher suggested that he would benefit his country by resigning the sovereign authority, he imprisoned him, and banished Dion; but the latter collected forces in Greece, and expelled the tyrant, 357. Dion was soon after assassinated, and in ten years Dionysius recovered his throne, but was again driven out by Timoleon, at the head of the Corinthian army, 343, and compelled to open a school for his support at Corinth, where he died on the day that his tragedy gained the prize at the Olympic games.

Destruction of Diana's Temple at

Ephesus. Eratosthratus, an Ephesian, to eternize his name, set fire to this most magnificent of all the heathen fanes, 356, on the night of the birth of Alexander.

Devotion of Decius Mus. This Roman consul devoted himself to the god's manes, for his country's safety, in a battle against the Latins, 338. In this he was followed by his son and grandson against the Samnites and Pyrrhus. The person so dedicating himself came forth, habited with unusual splendour, invoked the gods to support him, and then rushed into the thickest of the battle; and victory usually decided in favour of the army to which he belonged.

Battle of Chæronea. Philip of Macedon defeated the Athenians and Thebans at Chæronea 338, and thereby extinguished the independence of Greece. He was at once declared head of the Amphictyonic council, and generalissimo of the Grecian forces.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Philip, King of Macedon, had been brought up as a hostage amongst the Thebans, whence he obtained his knowledge of war. When called to the throne, until the minority of his nephew had expired, he declared himself independent, and seized various petty colonies of Athens and Thrace. When his son Alexander required a tutor, conscious of the inestimable advantages which result from the lessons, the example, and the conversation, of a learned and virtuous preceptor, he induced the philosopher Aristotle to dedicate his whole time to the instruction of the prince. Resolved upon the subjugation of Greece, he laid siege to Olynthus, which the Athenians defended as the key of their territory. Demosthenes called on his countrymen to scorn the proffered bribes of Philip; but gold prevailed, and Olynthus surrendered. The conqueror proceeded from victory to victory, until the fight of Chæronea

sealed the fate of integral Greece; and he was on the point of marching against Persia, when Pausanias, one of his own officers, stabbed him in the public theatre, 336.

Aristotle, the son of a Thracian physician, became the pupil of Plato, who used to call him *the mind* of his school. When Philip invited him to undertake the education of the heir to his throne, he fulfilled the duty in such a manner as to acquire the friendship of both father and son; and so lively was the gratitude of Philip, that he rebuilt the philosopher's native town Stagyræ, which he had dismantled, and restored the inhabitants to their former privileges. He opened his school in the Lyceum of Athens, 355, and founded his philosophical sect; and as he usually walked while he lectured, his followers were called *peripatetics* (walkers about), and his doctrine *the peripatetic philosophy*. Having taught for thirteen years with great popularity,

Eurymedon, a priest, accused him of impiety; whereon he retired to Chalcis, and died there in the same year that his illustrious pupil expired. Of the vast extent of Aristotle's intellect his writings remain an indisputable testimony. His treatise on rhetoric forms the basis of all that has been since written on the subject of eloquence by Quintilian and Cicero. On poetry, he furnishes a correct analysis of the constituent parts of the drama and the epic; the excellence of which consists in the scholastic precision with which the subject is handled. On politics, his opinions still possess a general value. The leading doctrine of his ethics is, that virtue consists in an avoidance of two extremes, the one of which is vicious through excess, the other through defect. His morality is less fanciful than that of Plato, and less pure than that of Socrates; receiving perhaps its worldly tincture from his residence at the court of Philip. Of logic, Aristotle may be called the inventor, especially of the art of syllogistic reasoning. He is first in the class of inquirers who, previous to the inductive philosophy, sought, by an exertion of pure intellect, to elicit results to which mind alone, without experiment, can never be adequate. The solidity of his labours as compared with those of his predecessors is remarkably conspicuous; and it was no small compliment to his memory, when the religious disputants of the middle ages used his dialectics as common weapons of defence, and established an intimate union between the principles of the peripatetic philosophy and those of Christianity.

Demosthenes, the most illustrious orator of Greece, was son of a rich blacksmith of Athens, and pupil of Plato. Through the ill-care of his guardians, he lost his property; whereupon he turned his mind to forensic eloquence, and overcame, by extraordinary perseverance, the most obstinate natural defects of utterance. With

pebbles in his mouth, he would at length clearly enunciate; on the sea-shore, while the waves were roaring, he would render himself audible; and the first use he made of his oratory, was to force his stolen patrimony from his guardians. His orations are said to have been written in a cave remote from society: that they failed in saving his country was the sin of the Athenians, who had too deeply sunk in the lap of luxury to be easily extricated. It was not until after the death of Alexander, that, just recalled from banishment, Demosthenes was denounced by Antipater, now master of Macedonia; to avoid whose ire he poisoned himself with a liquid he carried in a quill. Demosthenes was accustomed to rouse the slumbering affections of his countrymen by a species of exaggeration common to his nation; and his speeches against the bribery of Philip had obtained the appellation of *philippics*, a term now commonly used to denote harangues of a severe and sarcastic tone.

Æschines, the Athenian orator, three of whose speeches are extant, impeached Ctesiphon, when he proposed to the Athenians to reward Demosthenes for his patriotic labours with a golden crown; but was defeated by his rival's superior eloquence, and banished to Rhodes. As he retired, Demosthenes ran after him, and nobly forced him to accept a present of money.

Isocrates, also an orator of Athens, long kept Philip from his designs upon the state; but when that monarch was successful at Chæronea, he starved himself to death. The remains of his orations inspire us with high veneration for both his morals and eloquence.

Manlius Torquatus, the Roman dictator, celebrated for his stern love of justice. His son having gained a victory without the usual permission to engage the enemy, the rigorous father put him to death.

SECTION X.

['ARSES, KING OF PERSIA.']

338 TO 335—3 YEARS.

Arses. Bagoas had not long raised Arses to the throne, when he found him exposed, like his father, to ridicule the Egyptian idolatry, and to carry forces into Egypt to prevent a restoration of the same worship. He thereupon strangled him and placed Darius, a relation of the family, in his stead.

['EMINENT PERSONS.']

Phocion, the pupil of Plato, was an eminent ruler of Athens. Though he had opposed Demosthenes when he incited the people against Philip, he resisted every attempt of that monarch to bribe him. Alexander and Antipater, the successors of Philip, found him in like manner incorruptible. He was anxious for peace; and declared that the orators had brought ruin upon their country, by their fiery harangues. In the contest between Cassander and Polysperchon, Phocion, having sided

with the unsuccessful party (Cassander), was compelled by the fickle Athenians to drink hemlock, at the advanced age of eighty-two.

Theophrastus, the pupil of both Plato and Aristotle, succeeded the latter in the Lyceum of Athens. His lectures were attended by Cassander and Ptolemy, and kings and princes courted his friendship. He lived to the age of 107. His characters, a series of excellent ethnic portraits, is the most popular of his extant works.

SECTION XI.

DARIUS III. (*CODOMANUS*), KING OF PERSIA.

335 TO 331—4 YEARS.

Darius III. When Bagoas found Darius (or Darab) as little subservient as Arses had been, he attempted to poison him; but the king compelled the eunuch to drink the fatal potion himself. When Alexander invaded Persia, Darius met him at the head of 600,000 men, near the Granicus. But his army was more remarkable for luxury, than for the courage of its soldiers: 277 cooks, 116 cupbearers and waiters, forty servants to perfume the king, and sixty-six to deck the dining-tables with flowers, give us but a poor idea of the hardy warrior. Alexander routed this vast force with ease; and soon after defeated his enemy again at Issus, and took his mother, wife, and children, prisoners. The darkness of the night favoured the retreat of Darius; and he met Alexander for the last time at Arbela, 331. The victory was long and doubtful, but at length the Macedonians prevailed; and Darius, having been murdered in his chariot as he fled, by Bessus, one of his officers, was found by a Macedonian, covered with wounds, and expiring. He asked for water, and begged the soldier who brought it to give Alexander his thanks for the tenderness with which he heard he had treated his captive family. The conqueror coming up soon after, covered the body of the king with his own mantle, and gave it a magnificent burial, putting to an ignominious death the atrocious Bessus. Thus was the Persian empire supplanted, 207 years from its foundation, by the Grecian.

EVENTS.

Alexandria founded by Alexander, 332, as the capital of his dominions. So suddenly was the design executed, that when the hero had directed where each public edifice should stand, fixed the number of temples, and the deities to whom they should be dedicated, it was found that no instruments were at hand wherewith to mark out the walls. Upon this, a workman proposed to collect what meal was amongst the soldiers, and to sift it in lines. The advice was followed; and the new method was interpreted by Alexander as a presage of the city's abounding with the necessaries of life; a prediction afterwards verified by the place becoming, not only the staple of merchandise, but the grand nursery of the arts and sciences of Greece.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Diogenes, having been exiled from Sinope for coining false-money, came to Athens, and studied under Antisthenes, the Cynic. In illustration of his principles, he went about clad in coarse apparel, and carrying a tub on his head, in which he slept at night. He proved to Alexander, that a man possessing nothing might feel equal independence of mind with him who had all earthly things at command; for that hero, visiting him one day, asked him if he could render him any service? To which Diogenes replied, 'Yes, by getting out of my sunshine.' He had a column of Parian marble erected by his disciples to his memory after death; and though Plato called him, 'the mad Socrates,' there was something sane in the Cynic's preference of practical to theoretical wisdom. Deeming purity of mind and strength of body acquirable by habit, he derived virtue from discipline; and regarded a conquest over passions and desires as the grand object of philosophy. Alexander, in speaking of him, used to say, 'Were I not Alexander, I should wish to be Diogenes.'

Hyperides, the Athenian orator, and disciple of Plato. When taken prisoner at the battle of Cranon, he cut out his tongue that he might not betray the secrets of his country to Antipater.

SECTION XII.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT, KING OF ALL GREECE,

Including the monarchies of Assyria, Chaldea, Persia, and Macedon.

331 TO 323—8 YEARS.

Alexander, the most renowned of ancient heroes, was ushered into the world while Diana's gorgeous temple at Ephesus was burning. Aristotle became his tutor; and the rhapsodies of Homer, and especially the character of Achilles, contributed much to produce his passion for military glory. He gave proofs of manly skill and courage while young; one of which was the breaking in of his fiery courser, Bucephalus, which had mastered every groom. He was nineteen when he came to the throne of Macedon, upon his father's murder; and his first act was to punish the assassin. His youth having incited the Thebans to put down the ascendancy of his state, he, by a sudden march into Thessaly, overawed the most active of his opponents; and when, on a report of his death, circulated by Demosthenes and his party, a general declaration of the Greeks against Macedon took place, he punished the revolt of Thebes with a severity which effectually prevented any imitation of its example. That unhappy city was razed to the ground, with the ostentatious exception of the

house of the poet Pindar; while the surviving inhabitants were sold into slavery. Alexander now repaired to Corinth; and having had recognised in a general assembly his title of generalissimo, appointed Antipater viceroy of Macedon, and passed the Hellespont to invade the Persian empire, with an army not exceeding 34,500 horse and foot. The first battle was fought on the Granicus, where the Persians were unable to stand the valour of the Greeks: the immediate consequence of which victory was the freedom of the Greek cities in Asia Minor. The battle of Issus in Cilicia was the next great advantage obtained by Alexander, when the camp of Darius, with his mother, wife, and children, fell into the hands of the victor. From Cilicia he marched to Phœnicia; and all the country surrendered to him except Tyre, which cost him a siege of seven months. This delay so exasperated him, that he put many thousands of the inhabitants to death, and even carried his cruelty so far as to crucify 2000 for the crime of defending their country. At Jerusalem he was received by the high-priest, and offered sacrifice in the temple; he then proceeded to Gaza, where, after its capture, in puerile imitation of Achilles, he dragged the body of its governor, Betlis, round the walls of the place. Having visited Egypt, and laid down the plan of Alexandria, he ventured upon a romantic expedition to the temple of Jupiter Ammon in the desert, where the priests bestowed upon him the title of Son of Jupiter. He subsequently crossed the Euphrates and Tigris; and after rejecting fresh overtures from Darius, fought the decisive battle of Arbela, which determined the fate of Asia. Babylon was soon entered by the victor, as also Susa and Persepolis; the last of which was burned, to gratify the caprice of the courtesan, Thais. He then marched into Media, in pursuit of Darius; but finding that his enemy was no more, he proceeded to the north-east of Persia, and captured Roxana (daughter of the Sogdian prince Oxyartes), whom he formally espoused. Crossing the Indus, he subdued several of the princes of India; but was preparing to pass the Hyphasis, now the Beyah, when the discontent of his army obliged him to return. He accordingly erected twelve altars of an extraordinary size, to mark the limits of his progress, remnants of which are said to be still in existence. Retreating to the Hydaspes, he built on its banks the cities of Nicæa and Bucephala; and embarked with his light troops on board the fleet commanded by Nearchus, leaving the main army to march by land. Having entered the Indian ocean and sacrificed to Neptune, he left the fleet; and after ordering Nearchus, to sail up the Tigris to Mesopotamia, marched towards Babylon, in a kind of triumphal progress. With the view of uniting his Grecian with his Persian subjects, he, with eastern licence, married Statira, daughter of Darius, and Parisatis, daughter of Ochus, on reaching Susa; and promoted similar matches among his nobles. Desirous of exploring the maritime parts of his empire, he descended into the Persian gulf, and sailed up the Tigris to the camp of Hephæstion; where he quelled a dangerous insurrection among his Macedonian troops. At Ecbatana, he lost his favourite Hephæstion; his grief for which event approached to extravagance. At length he reached Babylon, where he laid plans for future undertakings of great magnitude; but was seized with a fever, when aged only thirty-two, 323. When required to name his successor, he replied, 'The most worthy.' With numerous faults, Alexander was assuredly a great character. Like all mere conquerors, he was especially alive to his own aggrandizement; he could also be cruel in matters of war, hasty and intemperate in dealing with his best friends, and prone to weep because he had not another world to subdue. But his conduct to repentant enemies, his respect for good and great men, his patronage of the learned, and his large and prospective views of true policy, speak remarkably in his favour, when we consider the times in which he lived, and the barbaric condition of the nations

over which he ruled. The manner in which he swallowed the draught administered by his friend and physician, Philip,—giving him at the moment the letter to read, which informed him that it was poison,—has been admired by every succeeding age; and is only one of many proofs that might be adduced of that dignity of mind which was the result of his famed preceptor's instructions.

EVENTS.

First authentic notice of Hindustan. Alexander found Hindustan, 325, what it now is. The stated change of seasons (monsoons), the periodical rains, the inundations of rivers, the delicate forms of the people, their dark complexions, and black uncurled hair, their cotton garments, their living entirely on vegetable food, their division into separate tribes or castes, and the custom of wives burning themselves with their deceased husbands, now called suttees, are all mentioned by the writers of his day. It would seem that, from the earliest period, the Hindus have been divided into four castes or orders. The members of the first, or sacred order, called Brahmins, who have a language peculiar to themselves called Sanscrit, study and teach the principles of religion and philosophy, contained in the holy books called Vedas; those of the second govern the state; those of the third are merchants and agriculturists; and the last are artisans and servants. No one can quit his caste, or be admitted into another. The line of separation is even confirmed by religion; and each order is said to have descended from the divinity in so distinct a manner, that to mingle them would be an act of daring impiety. Moreover the members of each caste adhere invariably to the professions of their forefathers. Their worship is idolatrous, and their gods are Brahme, the supreme being, who takes the name of Brahma while creating, and of Seeva when destroying; Vishnu, the preserver, being the divine spirit of Brahme; and Narayan, the mover on the waters, who supports the life of all nature. These three they consider as forming only one power, who is continually employed in defeating the destructive schemes of Maha-

soor, and his Dewtahs, all rebellious spirits. The religious customs of the Hindus agree in many respects with those of the ancient Egyptians, thereby showing one common origin; the gipsies are a nomad tribe of the lowest caste of Hindus; and the name Hindustan is derived from the *Indus*, its great western river, and *stan*, Persian for a country.

Cutting the Gordian Knot. Gordius, in former days, had obtained the sovereignty of Phrygia. During a sedition, the Phrygians, on consulting the oracle, were told that all their troubles would cease, if they would take for their king the first man they met going to the temple of Jupiter in a chariot. Gordius was that man; and as the knot which fastened the yoke to the draught-tree was so artfully made as to conceal the ends of the cord, a report was spread that the empire of Asia was promised to him who could loosen the knot of Gordius. In his progress through Asia, Alexander passed through Gordium, where the knot was still preserved, and cut it with his sword, asserting that the oracle was thereby fulfilled.

Defeat of Porus. On the banks of the Hydaspes, now the Betah, Alexander was opposed by Porus, a king of the country, at the head of a numerous army; but he drove the Indian back covered with wounds, and eventually captured him. When Alexander asked him 'How he expected to be treated?' he replied, 'Like a king.' This magnanimous answer so pleased the hero, that he not only restored him his dominions, but helped him to conquer new provinces. There must have been something to excite a smile in the contrast, on this memorable occasion, between the chief actors in the scene; Porus being of gigantic stature, eight

ter in height, while his mighty conqueror was scarcely five feet and a half, having his neck somewhat awry, and features which expressed a fierceness of character combined with much of majestic dignity.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Apelles, who was alone allowed to take the portrait of Alexander. The rule which this celebrated painter laid down for himself, afterwards so well expressed by Tully, 'nulla dies sine lineâ,' has passed into a proverb; and is an admirable maxim for every one resolving to effect a work of excellence, whether in arts, morals, or that science which alone can avail us hereafter—the *to ergon* of the Christian. When *Apelles* had executed a picture of Alexander on horseback, which did not give the monarch satisfaction until a passing horse neighed at the one represented in the piece, the artist observed, that the horse was a better judge of painting than the king.

Lysippus, a statuary of Sicyon, who was alone permitted to sculpture the figure of Alexander, executed no less than 600 statues. Those of the twenty-five horsemen drowned in the Granicus were so valued, that, in the age of Augustus, they were bought for their weight in gold.

Hephæstion, famous for his intimacy with Alexander, accompanied the conqueror in his Asiatic expedition, and was so faithful, that Alexander, often observed, 'Craterus is the friend of

the king, but Hephæstion of Alexander.' The hero was so inconsolable at his death, that he shed tears, and ordered the sacred fire to be extinguished, as at the death of a Persian monarch.

Anaxarchus, a disciple of Democritus, who offended Nicocreon, king of Salamis, at Alexander's table, by the freedom of his remarks; whereon Nicocreon seized the philosopher, and had him pounded to death in a mortar with iron hammers, the torture of which he bore with the utmost patience, exclaiming occasionally, "Thou canst not pound my soul!"

Dinocrates, an architect, who proposed to Alexander to cut mount Athos in the form of a statue, holding a city in one hand, and in the other a basin, into which all the waters of the mountain should empty themselves. This project Alexander rejected as chimerical; but he employed the talents of the artist in beautifying Alexandria. He was building a temple in honour of Arsinoë, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, in which he intended to suspend a statue of the queen by means of loadstones, when death seized his hand, 275.

PERIOD THE SIXTH.

From the Death of Alexander to the Advent of Christ.

323 B. C. TO 14 A. D.—337 YEARS.

SECTION I.

PTOLEMY I. (*LAGUS OR SOTER*), KING OF EGYPT.

323 TO 284—39 YEARS.

Ptolemy Lagus, the half-brother of Alexander, by Arsinoë, was brought up at the court of Macedon by Philip. He accompanied Alexander to India;

and so great was his influence at the period of the conqueror's decease, that Egypt, Libya and Arabia fell to his lot without opposition. The attempts of Perdiccas to drive him out, proved abortive ; and Ptolemy, firmly established, carried from Jerusalem no less than 100,000 Jews to people Alexandria. Nineteen years after the death of Alexander, he assumed the title of king of Egypt. From the assistance he gave to the Rhodians, he received from them the title of *soter* or preserver ; he reduced Cyprus, obtained signal victories over Demetrius and Antigonus, who would have deprived him of Syria ; and finally turned his mind to the improvement of his capital, where he built the famous Pharos, or lighthouse, to guide sailors into the harbour ; established a library, which became one of the most famous in the world ; and founded the first *museum*, a society of learned men, engaged in philosophical pursuits, and maintained at the public cost.

EVENTS.

The Division of the Grecian Empire. On the death of Alexander, 323, his immense empire was parted between four of his generals, after they had put down a host of rival competitors. *Seleucus* had Persia, Babylon, Media, and Assyria ; and building Antioch, in Syria, he made it his capital, 312 ; a year marked as the era of the Seleucidæ, because the descendants of Seleucus ruled from that time over Syria until its conquest by Pompey, 65. *Ptolemy Lagus* had Egypt ; *Antipater* took Macedon and the states of Greece ; *Lysimachus* had Thrace and Bithynia.

Usurpation of Agathocles, a potter's son, who made himself master of Syracuse. He defeated the Carthaginians, to whom Sicily belonged, on their own ground ; and having rendered them tributary, sailed for Italy,

and took Crotona, the city of wrestlers. He died king of Syracuse, 289.

Insurrection of Antigonus. When Alexander's kingdom was divided by the four generals, they were compelled to allot small portions of territory to such officers as had been in his confidence. Eumenes received Cappadocia ; but Antigonus was by no means contented with Pamphylia : and having wrested Cappadocia from Eumenes, put him to death. He then drove Seleucus out of Syria ; whereon Ptolemy, Seleucus, Cassander (who had succeeded Antipater), and Lysimachus, went against him at Ipsus in Phrygia, 301, and having killed him, totally routed his large army.

The Sundial was invented at Rome, 293, by Papirius Cursor ; and the day first divided into hours.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Antipater was no sooner known to be sovereign of Macedon, than the Greek states revolted ; they were, however, again subjugated, and the orators Demosthenes and Hyperides, the alleged authors of the insurrection, delivered to Antipater to suffer death. Antipater himself died soon after, leaving his dominions to Polysperchon, in preference to his own son, Cassander ; but the latter dethroned his rival, and reigned eighteen years over Greece.

Euclid established his mathema-

tical school at Alexandria ; and it became so famous, that, until the Saracen conquest, no professor was to be found who had not studied therein. Ptolemy himself became his pupil, and the great Plato referred many important questions to him for solution. To the school of Alexandria we are indebted for all of value done early in pure mathematics ; but especially to Euclid's system of elementary geometry. His object was apparently to correct the errors of Hippocrates and other writers, to supply

their deficiencies, and to unite the series of elementary truths into a systematic chain of deduction. Euclid's book is admirable for the logical precision of its demonstrations and its general simplicity; and although many attempts have been made to get rid of an obscurity attaching to some of the definitions and axioms, and to correct the primary defect in the theory of parallel lines, none have succeeded in making the book uniformly better.

Praxiteles, of Magna Græcia, now Calabria, in Italy, always worked in Parian marble; and *Phryne*, to ascertain which he valued most of his unsold works, told him that his house was on fire; whereon he seized his statue of Cupid.

Bion, of Smyrna, the Greek pastoral poet, whose Idyls abound in beautiful descriptions of country scenery; and are usually joined to the productions of his disciple, *Moschus*.

Menander, known to us by a few fragments, as an elegant comic poet of Athens, drowned himself because his rival *Philemon*, gained more applause than himself. Terence's plays are said to be translations from *Menander*.

Pyrrho, the Greek philosopher, visited India in the train of Alexander the Great. There he made himself acquainted with the opinions of the Brahmins and Magi; from whom he imbibed whatever seemed favourable to his natural inclination for doubting. He gradually arrived at the conclusion that nothing is to be affirmed as matter of fact; and a numerous sect, assuming his opinions, and taking the title of *Pyrrhonists*, soon arose.

Demetrius, after the battle of Ipsus, which had been so fatal to his father, *Antigonos*, subdued Athens; and then obtained the throne of Macedon by the murder of Alexander, son of Cassander. Though *Seleucus* imprisoned him for life at Antioch, his posterity kept Macedon till its fall to the Romans.

Perdiccas, the friend of Alexander, to whom he had given his ring when dying, had endeavoured to prove himself successor by will to his vast dominions. While *Ptolemy*, however, and others were contending with him in Egypt, he was assassinated in his tent.

SECTION II.

PTOLEMY II. (PHILADELPHUS), KING OF EGYPT.

284 TO 246—38 YEARS.

Ptolemy Philadelphus was so called by antiphrasis, having murdered his brothers to reach the throne. He made alliance with the Romans, upon hearing they had conquered so powerful a prince as *Pyrrhus*; and when *Antiochus* of Syria stirred up *Magas*, king of Cyrene, a brother of *Philadelphus*, to attack him, *Magas* was put to death, peace restored, and *Antiochus* married *Berenice*, *Ptolemy's* daughter. *Philadelphus* reigned over 33,000 well-peopled towns, encouraged commerce, kept two powerful fleets, and an army of 240,000 horse and foot, with 300 elephants, and 2000 armed chariots; and left in his treasury a sum equivalent to 200,000,000 sterling. His palace was the asylum of learned men; his father's library he greatly increased; and by his orders the *Septuagint* was translated.

EVENTS.

The Septuagint Translation. *Ptolemy*, wishing to have a copy of the Jewish law, directed six elders out of every tribe of Israel, to render the Pentateuch into Greek, under the direction of their high priest; and the isle of Pharos was allotted for the conference. The prophets and other por-

tions of the Old Testament were afterwards in like manner translated; and this version of the Old Testament has obtained the name of Septuagint, from the seventy-two persons engaged in the work, which was not completed until 180 B.C.

Pergamus founded. Pergamus, in Asia Minor, became a kingdom, 282, by the ambition of Philetærus, an eunuch, whom Lysimachus, after the battle of Ipsus, had intrusted with the treasures taken in the war. He reigned twenty years; and as his state never made any great figure in history, it is enough to say that it endured till 133 B.C., when Attalus left the Romans his heirs. The library of the capital consisted of 200,000 volumes, which were added by Cleopatra to those of Alexandria. Parchment (*charta pergamena*) was first invented at Pergamus, when Ptolemy would not allow Eumenes to import papyrus from Egypt, lest he should have a library larger than his own.

Commencement of the Achæan League.—The descendants of Achæus, of Thessaly (great grandson of Deucalion), at first inhabited near Argos; but the Heraclidæ having driven them out after the Trojan war, they seized the twelve cities of the Ionians, in Peloponnesus, and gave the name of Achæia to their new territory. Those who obtained Patræ, Dyme, and Pharæ, entered into a confederacy, 281, which continued formidable against the Grecian states 130 years; being most illustrious while supported by the talents of Aratus and Philopœmen. The Achæans gradually extended the borders of their country, and founded colonies even in Magna Græcia; until, in 147 B.C., the Romans dissolved their league.

The Tarentine War was undertaken by the Romans against the people of Tarentum, 281, to avenge the insults offered to their ships; and lasted ten years, the celebrated Pyrrhus aiding the Tarentines. The Romans were victorious, took 30,000 prisoners, and

made the state a province of their empire.

Rise of the Stoics. Zeno of Cyprus taught philosophy at Athens in the *stoa* or portico, and had many disciples. His doctrines, hence called stoical, inculcated a perfect resignation to the will of Heaven, the possibility of crushing the passions, and the free agency of the mind as respects corporeal influences. Hence pain exists but in the imagination. Each disciple reviewed his actions at the close of the day with critical accuracy; and regulated his future conduct with greater care. One of Zeno's most sensible observations was, 'that as we have two ears, but only one mouth, we were intended to listen more than to speak.'

Attack of Delphi. The Gauls, under Brennus, the second general of that name, attacked Delphi, 278, with a view to plunder the temple. The Greeks, however, defended the place most valiantly, and are said to have put the enemy's troops to the sword even to a man, amounting to 165,000 horse and foot. Brennus killed himself in despair.

Rise of the Epicureans. Epicurus of Mitylene settled in Athens, and obtained there a pleasant garden, in which he taught; whence his sect was called that of the garden. Cicero describes the friendship of the Epicurean fraternity as unequalled for steadiness and virtue. The conduct of the philosopher himself was moral and abstemious; and he inculcated the purest manners and the strictest rule of the passions, as the only means of securing a happy existence. He deemed philosophy to be the exercise of reason in the pursuit and attainment of happiness; and maintained that men should labour to find what is to be chosen and what avoided, to bring health of body, and tranquillity of mind. His unfortunate adoption of the word 'pleasure' to express this consummation, has both exposed his doctrine to unmerited reproach, and confirmed sensual men in

her vicious habits. Nothing could possibly be more opposed to the system of Epicurus than the habits of the Epicureans of later days, or than those of the Epicures of modern times. In his anxiety to abolish the worship of the Greek deities, Epicurus may be said to have originated the atheism so long afterwards observable amongst the ancients.

Coming at Rome. Silver coin was first used by the Romans, 269. The chief Roman coins were teruncius, three quarters of an English farthing; as, three farthings; sestertius, 1½d.; silver denarius, 7½d.; aureus, 1l. 0s. 9d. The chief Grecian coins were, the brass obolus, 1½d.; the silver drachma, 7½d.; and the stater aureus, 16s. 1½d. The chief Jewish coins were, gerah, 1½d.; and shekel, 2½d., both of silver. A mina amounted to 5l. 14s. sterling; a talent of silver to 342l.; and a talent of gold to 5475l. The Persian coin, daric, was used in Athens, under the name of stater, worth 25s. of our money.

The First Punic War. There were three wars so called between Rome and Carthage, which had been jealous rivals for 240 years. (*Punic* from Pœni, the Romans calling the Carthaginians Phœnicians, because of their origin). The first contest commenced 264; and was occasioned by the Romans having taken part in a civil war in Sicily, the province of Carthage. It ended in favour of the Romans, after a duration of 23 years. Regulus, the Roman consul, was taken prisoner therein by Xanthippus; and he was sent from Carthage to Rome to make terms of peace, after having sworn by a solemn oath to return. The general, who had, in so many instances, triumphed in Sicily over his enemy,

and whose hatred to the Carthaginians was invincible, forcibly dissuaded the senate from accepting the proffered treaties, and then fearlessly returned to Carthage. With a brutality worthy of the most barbaric ages, he was ordered to be exposed for several days to the meridian sun, to be then placed in a barrel whose sides were lined with iron spikes, and to be thus left to expire.

The Parian Chronicle. A gentleman named Petty, commissioned by the Earl of Arundel to collect antiquities in Greece, brought home, A.D. 1610, certain pieces of marble, with inscriptions on them, engraven in the isle of Paros, which inscriptions are for the most part in capital Grecian letters, and consist of a chronological list of Grecian events from Cæcrops, 1556, to the archonship of Diognetas, 264 a. c. They are supposed to have been executed, 264, and are commonly called the Arundelian marbles. The University of Oxford now possesses them; and though much was at one time written to prove them spurious, they are generally referred to as the standard of truth.

Parthia founded. This country, close to Media, had been always a dependant state until Arsaces, an obscure person, placed himself at its head, 250. In vain did the Macedonians attempt its recovery; and it even disputed the empire of the world with the Romans. It existed as a kingdom 480 years, when it was added to the Persian monarchy. Historians mention the havoc occasioned by the retreat of the Parthians during a battle: galloping from the action, they dexterously shot their arrows backwards with unerring precision; so that their flight was far more formidable than their onset.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a state near Macedon, having been invited by the Samnites and Tarentines to aid them against the Romans, entered Italy, 280; but although successful,

his advantage was small, and that principally gained by his elephants, which alarmed the Roman cavalry, unaccustomed to such huge assailants. The Sicilians now invited him to

assist them against the Carthaginians ; and after taking many towns for them, he returned to Italy, and was defeated by Curius, though he had an army of 80,000 men. Ashamed of his loss, he precipitately returned to Epirus, and depriving Antigonus, of Macedon, of his throne, was declared sovereign of Greece. Interfering with the people of Argos to settle their disputes, a woman of that city threw a tile from the top of her house, and brought him to the ground. His head was cut off, and carried to Antigonus, who gave his remains a magnificent funeral, 272. Hannibal, himself the first of soldiers, declared that, for experience and sagacity, Pyrrhus was unrivalled.

Fabricius, a Roman general and consul, noted for his disinterestedness, triumphed over the Sabines, and brought immense treasures home. When he had defeated Pyrrhus, he rejected with contempt his splendid bribes ; and when the king's physician proposed to him to poison his master, Fabricius apprized Pyrrhus of his domestic's treachery. The state portioned his daughter, and gave him a splendid funeral *within the walls*.

Amilcar Barcas, a general of Carthage, and father of Hannibal, who founded Barcelona in Spain. His enmity to the Romans was the cause of the second Punic war ; and he used to say, in allusion to his three sons, that he kept three lions to devour the Roman power.

Arsinœ, sister and wife of Philadelphus, was a woman of extraor-

dinary beauty ; and after death was worshipped under the name of Venus Zephyritis.

Manetho, an Egyptian priest, who wrote in Greek a history of his country, of which fragments still remain.

Callimachus, the historian and poet, left his native Africa for Alexandria, where Apollonius became his pupil. His epigrams, elegies, and hymns were translated by the unhappy Dr. Dodd.

Philetas, the preceptor of Philadelphus, was a much-esteemed poet ; but only fragments of him (of great sweetness) remain in Athenæus. *Ælian*, that monstrous story-teller, says that he was so small and slender in person, that he was accustomed to carry pieces of lead in his pockets, lest the wind should carry him away.

Zoilus, a celebrated grammarian of Amphipolis, rendered himself known by his critical severity ; so that the term *Zoilus* is now used to designate an austere critic.

Lycophron, of Eubœa, author of *Cassandra*, a medley of prophetic effusions supposed to have been given by *Cassandra* in the Trojan war.

Theocritus, of Syracuse, thirty of whose simple idyls in the Doric dialect still remain.

Aratus, of Cilicia, whose *Phænomena*, translated into Latin by Cicero, abounds in fine passages.

Apollonius, of Rhodes, author of a poem on the Argonauts, yet extant, which Virgil did not disdain to imitate.

SECTION III.

PTOLEMY III. (*EVERGETES*), KING OF EGYPT.

246 TO 221—25 YEARS.

EVENTS.

Evergetes. The unkindness of Antiochus of Syria towards his sister Berenice, induced the son and successor of Philadelphus to make war upon his brother-in-law ; and after ravaging Syria and Persia, he returned laden with spoil, in which were 2500 statues of the Egyptian gods that had been carried

by Cambyses. This act obtained for him the title of Evergetes, or beneficent, and Persia was henceforth tributary to Egypt. Evergetes showed much favour to the Jews; and his last years were passed in extending his dominions towards the straits of Babelmandel, and in aiding Cleomenes of Sparta against the united Achæans and Macedonians.

EVENTS.

The Death of Agis. This Spartan monarch restored liberty to many of the Greek cities; but on attempting to restore the laws of Lycurgus, the ephori, or five chief magistrates of Sparta, whose power was absolute over the king himself, assassinated him 241.

The Colossus of Rhodes, fell 224. It was a brazen image, 105 feet high, representing Apollo; and its feet were upon the two moles forming the harbour-entrance to the isle, so that ships could pass in full sail between its legs. A winding staircase ran to the top, whence could easily be discerned the shores of Syria. It had been erect

eighty-eight years, but was doomed to lie nearly 900 more before its ruins were removed, when the brass sold for 36,000*l.* sterling. The seven wonders in art of the ancients were: The Colossus; the sepulchre of Mausolus, king of Caria, whose widow Artemisia drank his ashes, and erected a tomb to his memory surpassing all others in magnificence,—hence, mausoleum now implies a sepulchre of more than ordinary splendour; the palace of Cyrus in Persia; the Egyptian pyramids; Jupiter's statue at Olympia; Diana's temple at Ephesus; and the hanging walls of Babylon.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Aratus of Sicyon, the active head of the Achæan league. Cleomenes defeated him; but Antigonus of Macedon helped him to recover his loss, whereupon the Spartan king fled to Evergetes's court. Two solemn sacrifices, called Arateia, were annually observed at Sicyon to commemorate his emancipation of that state.

Cleomenes, king of Sparta, resolved, like Agis, to restore the ancient discipline of Lycurgus, and to banish luxury and intemperance. Satisfied, from the fate of Agis, that this reformation could not be effected so long as the ephori bore sway, he put those magistrates to death, and re-established the agrarian and sumptuary enactments of the great lawgiver. To crush the Achæan confederacy became now his main endeavour; and, full of hope, he led his forces against Aratus, who had formed an alliance with Antigonus of Macedon. However disposed the majority of the Peloponnesians had shown themselves to favour the Achæan league, this coalition, which proclaimed Macedon the

arbitrer of Grecian affairs, compelled the states to look to Cleomenes, as the protector of their liberties. After an ineffectual attempt to seize Corinth, the energetic monarch retreated to Sellasia, to cover Sparta. Here he took up an admirable position, in the hope that Aratus would attack him; but that wary general waited until the army of the Spartans should be distressed for provisions, and forced to an engagement in the open plain. The stratagem succeeded: Cleomenes gave battle to the Achæans; and all his skill and valour could not save him from a complete defeat. Evergetes received him with great cordiality; but his successor, Philopater, expressed his jealousy of the noble stranger, and imprisoned him; whereon he put himself to death.

Cæcilius Metellus, a Roman general, who saved from the flames the palladium, when Vesta's temple was on fire. He lost his sight and one of his arms in the action; and the senate permitted him ever after to be drawn to the senate-house in a chariot, an

honour which no one had before enjoyed. He also gained a great victory over the Carthaginians in the first Punic war, and led in his triumph

thirteen generals, and 120 elephants taken from the enemy; in reward of which he was chosen dictator.

SECTION IV.

PTOLEMY IV. (*PHILOPATER*), KING OF EGYPT.

221 TO 204—17 YEARS.

Philopater, son of Evergetes, began his reign with acts of revolting cruelty, and put to death his own mother, wife, sister, and brother. We must regard him as a madman when we read of his ranting through the streets of Alexandria as a bacchanal, and of his attempt to destroy the remnant of the Jewish nation. Returning from a war against Antiochus of Syria, he drew the Jews into a plain, and drove a herd of elephants amongst them; but, by a supernatural instinct, the generous animals turned their fury upon the Egyptian soldiery. *Philopater* henceforward paid great respect to the Hebrews. He died, worn out by intemperance, aged thirty-six.

EVENTS.

The Social War of three years, began 219, between the Achæans, aided by Macedon and other states, and the Ætolians, who had destroyed Cynætha, a city of Arcadia. The word social was used to denote the association of so many states against one.

The Battle of Cannæ. During the first Punic war, Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, had deserted the Carthaginian cause, and become the ally of Rome; and when peace was concluded, the victorious Romans stipulated that Hiero should not again be molested, prescribing bounds beyond which the people of Carthage should never proceed in arms, without being regarded as enemies of the republic. Hannibal, who had succeeded to the command of the Carthaginian army in Spain, spurned the restraints thus put upon his nation; and having laid siege to Saguntum, when the peace had existed twenty-three years, brought on the second Punic war, 218. When Saguntum had capitulated, Hannibal crossed the Alps and entered Italy; and in 216, on the plains of Cannæ, gained over the Romans one of the most decisive victories on record. No less than 45,000 of the enemy were

left dead on the field, amongst whom were 5630 knights, whose gold rings were conveyed in three bushels to Carthage. The victor, however, instead of marching upon Rome, retired, after his success, to Capua, where his army, lost in the pleasures of feasting and diversion, was set upon by Marcellus, who recovered town after town, and greatly harassed the invaders. Hence it was said that Capua was a Cannæ to Hannibal. Scipio the younger was now despatched against Carthage; and Hannibal being recalled from Italy, was defeated by him on the plains of Zama, 201; a victory which closed the second Punic war of seventeen years. The terms imposed on the vanquished went far to destroy the power of their state. Their navy was to be given up, they were never to train elephants again for war, never to commence hostilities with any nation without asking permission of the Romans, and were to pay to the victors 200 talents annually for fifty years.

Rise of the Sadducees. Sadoc, a Jew, affirming that there were no rewards after this life, had many followers. He denied the immortality of the soul, and consequently the

resurrection of the body ; and taught that nothing was to be imposed upon men's belief or practice but what was expressly contained in the law of Moses.

The Auxiliary War, between the Romans and the last Philip of Macedon, who had leagued with Hannibal against their state, began in Epirus, then a portion of Macedon, 214, and lasted fourteen years ; when the Romans were declared victors.

The Wall of China. The Chinese sovereign, Shi-wang-ti, divided his empire into thirty-six provinces ; and finding the northern part open to the incursions of the Tartars, he commenced a wall that should in future bar their entrance. This extensive fabric still exists, and is 1500 miles long, and broad enough for five horsemen to ride upon it abreast. It is carried over mountains 5000 feet high, across valleys, and in arches over rivers. In important passes it is doubled and trebled ; and at every hundred yards has a tower for soldiers. It is in general twenty-five feet high and fifteen thick. The work, however, failed

in its design ; for the barbaric hordes not only entered the celestial kingdom, as China is termed, but gained possession of the throne, whereon a Tartar at this day sits.

Spain added to Rome. Spain was given up by Carthage to Rome at the close of the second Punic war. Augustus divided the whole peninsula into Lusitania and Bætica ; and although the modern Portugal and Spain were not accurately defined by those terms, they were very nearly so, Lusitania having only more of the north of Spain than Portugal at present possesses. Spain, called Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania, by the ancients, was first colonized by Phœnicians, from whom it passed to their African descendants. So productive were its silver-mines at one period, that 20,000 drachms of that metal were daily yielded ; ships were sent with it as ballast, while oars, anchors, mangers, and the most ordinary vessels and instruments, were made of it. Quintilian, Lucan, Martial, and Seneca, were natives of Spain.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Hannibal, perhaps the greatest military tactician of ancient times, applied, after his defeat at Zama, to Prusias, king of Bithynia, hoping to engage that monarch in a war with his enemies ; but the Romans demanding him of Prusias, he poisoned himself by taking the contents of his ring ;—a ring which, Juvenal observes, made ample amends to the Romans for the loss of the sackful at Cannæ. Hannibal had the merit of balancing the fortunes of Rome and Carthage, and of shaking the power of the former to such a degree, that its historians allude to his career with horror.

Philopæmen, head of the Achæan league, took Lacedæmon, and made Sparta tributary. Falling from his horse during an engagement with the Messenians, he was dragged to the enemy's camp, and there compelled to drink poison.

Ennius, one of the earliest Latin poets, was patronized by Cato the censor. His style is unpolished ; yet his works gave rise to great changes in the character of the Latin language. Born in Calabria, a Greek colony, he was imbued with the peculiar characteristics of the Grecian tongue ; and from his day Greek models were universally adopted in the Roman schools.

Fabius Maximus, a Roman consul, who constantly counteracted the operations of Hannibal, by delay ; so that 'the Fabian method' became an adage in military tactics.

Marcellus, the chief stay of the Romans against Hannibal, was sent against the Carthaginians in Sicily, who had excited a rebellion on the murder of king Hieronymus by the Syracusans ; and though Archimedes kept his fleet off Syracuse for three years, he at

length pillaged that city. He was killed in an ambuscade against Hannibal.

Archimedes of Syracuse, when the Romans, in the second Punic war, besieged the city, raised their ships into the air by machinery, and let them fall, so as to break them. He was the inventor of a pumping-screw which still bears his name, and the father of *statics*, or that branch of mechanics which refers to the action of forces in equilibrio, producing not motion but rest; in opposition to dynamics, which treat of bodies in motion. On such satisfactory principles has he established the laws of equilibrium, that to this day scarcely any thing has been added to the evidence of the reasonings he has advanced. To him also we owe the discovery of the principal laws of hydrostatics; and he proved that a solid body, when immersed in a liquid, loses a portion of its weight equal to that of the liquid it displaces. The latter fact was demonstrated to the

philosopher when he observed the water rise on the immersion of his body in a bath: in the ecstasy of the moment he leaped out, without stopping to clothe himself, exclaiming, eureka! eureka! (I have found it.) *Archimedes* was ignorantly killed by a common soldier, though *Marcellus* had wished to save him.

Flaminius, the chief general of Rome against the last Philip of Macedonia, took Phocis and Epirus from that monarch, and had the gratification, at the Isthmian games, of declaring Greece free from Macedonian tribute. This action procured the title of 'patrons of Greece,' to the Romans, and paved the way to its subjugation.

Eratosthenes, of Cyrene, had the care of the Alexandrian library, invented the armillary sphere, measured the obliquity of the ecliptic, which he determined at twenty degrees and a half, and calculated with exactness the circumference of the earth.

SECTION V.

PTOLEMY V. (*EPIPHANES*), KING OF EGYPT.

204 TO 180—24 YEARS.

Ptolemy, was only four when his father died; and, during his minority, his ministers recovered from Antiochus all the provinces he had taken from Egypt in Cælosyria and Palestine. When of age, though designated *Epiphanes*, or illustrious, he displayed all the vicious propensities of his parent. The only act of steadiness we can observe, is his fidelity to the Roman alliance; which was rather the result of his desire to suppress Antiochus, than of any regard for his word. Proposing to his ministers a diminution of their incomes, to carry on a war against Seleucus, the successor of Antiochus, they poisoned him.

EVENT.

Syria made tributary to Rome. Antiochus, called the great, king of Syria, entered into a league with Philip of Macedonia to dethrone *Epiphanes*. The Egyptians, however, put their young king under Roman protection; and a contest commenced, wherein Antiochus subdued nearly all Asia Minor, before the Romans were able to check his progress. Hannibal having taken refuge at his court, encouraged him to carry the war into Italy, and crush the Roman power; and it is not unlikely that his arms might have effected as much, had he not delayed. *Scipio Asiaticus* attacked him at Magnesia, near Ephesus, 187; and having completely

routed him, granted him a peace on the most humiliating terms. Unable to pay the fine imposed by the victor, he attempted to seize the riches of the temple of Jupiter Belus in Elymais ;

but the people of the place rose upon him, and slew both him and his attendants ; and Syria henceforth became, though governed by its own kings, a tributary state of Rome.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Cato the Censor rose to all the honours of the state at Rome, fought against Hannibal at the age of seventeen, and in his military expeditions to Carthage, Spain, and Greece, displayed consummate courage and prudence. As censor, he behaved with great rigour and impartiality ; showing himself to be an enemy to luxury, and to the introduction of the fine arts from Greece. He brought up his son to bear all manner of hardships : and to throw the javelin, to swim across rapid rivers, to live in the battle-field, were matters of ease to the younger Cato. The father touched no liquid but water, and was satisfied with the meats laid by the servants upon his table. He used to say he repented of only three things :

to have gone by sea when he might have gone by land ; to have passed a day inactive ; and to have told a secret to his wife. He was the declared enemy of Carthage, and the maxim, ' *Delenda est Carthago* ! ' was his. In his old age he learned Greek ; and he wrote, in his own tongue, a work on agriculture yet extant.

Plautus, the comic poet of Rome, was brought up to commerce, but misfortunes obliged him to become assistant to a baker ; and his plays, twenty of which remain, were composed amid the labours of the grinding-house. His style, though inferior to that of Terence, is energetic and elegant ; and he is to be admired for his truth to nature.

SECTION VI.

PTOLEMY VI. (*PHILOMETOR*), KING OF EGYPT.

180 TO 145—35 YEARS.

Ptolemy Philometor was son of Evergetes, and his mother, Cleopatra, governed during his minority. Going against Antiochus Epiphanes, he fell into the hands of the enemy ; and the people, in his absence, raised his brother Physcon to the throne. Epiphanes, however, restored Philometor, keeping Pelusium, the key of Egypt, as his reward ; whereupon the brothers agreed to unite, and force the Syrian king to relinquish that city, which, by the aid of the Romans, they effected. The two Ptolemies soon after fell into dispute ; and Physcon having appeared at Rome to complain of the conduct of Philometor, the senate decided that the latter should keep Egypt, and Physcon all Libya and Cyrene. The island of Cyprus next became a cause of quarrel to the brothers, and the Romans aided Physcon to conquer it ; soon after which Philometor died, leaving his ambitious brother in possession of the whole.

EVENTS.

Fall of Macedon. Rome had been long aiming at the sovereignty of Greece : at length Paulus Æmilius met Perseus, king of Macedon, at Pydna, 168, and there vanquished him, taking him prisoner, and adding

his territories to those of Rome. The Grecian states in the power of Macedon were also made part and parcel of the Roman empire.

Revolt of the Maccabees. From Nehemiah's time the Jews had been

a dependant nation. Alexander the Great, upon being shown by Jaddua, the high-priest, the prophecy of Daniel respecting his conquest of Persia, had displayed a partiality for the Jews, remitted them a year's tribute, and confirmed them in all their privileges. From the death of Alexander, Judæa followed the fate of Syria; and after various revolutions and alternate subjugation to the kings of Syria and Egypt, suffering all the while from the oppression and exactions of its own high-priests and viceroys, fell again under the power of Syria, in the time of Antiochus Epiphanes, who cruelly harassed and pillaged the people. His severe persecution inflamed the zeal of Mattathias, of the family of the Maccabees or Asmoneans, to resentment and revolt; and the prudent conduct of his son Judas, and his brethren, which effected the freedom of ancient Israel, constitutes the chief subject of the apocryphal books of Maccabees, written by John Hyrcanus, an Asmonean. In one year, after fighting five pitched battles, Judas cleared Judæa of the Syrians, and forced the king to a peace; but Eupator, the successor of Epiphanes, broke the treaty, and Judas, deserted by his soldiers, fell, 161. Jonathan, the brother of Judas, again made a treaty with Syria, and, together with the high-priest, ruled the people for some years in tolerable tranquillity.

The Roman Library founded by the plunder of the Macedonian library: from which period the Roman people became more literary and less warlike.

The Water-clock was invented at Rome by Scipio Nastica, 159, being an improvement upon the Egyptian clepsydra, which measured time by the flow of water out of one vessel into another. This was the first advance towards the modern clock.

Fall of Carthage. The third Punic war began 149, the Carthaginians having attacked Massanissa, king of Numidia, an ally of Rome, without

the permission of the Roman senate. Massanissa had just defeated them in a sanguinary engagement, when the Romans landed, and, without declaring war, demanded for this infraction of the treaty, 300 hostages, all senators' children. These the alarmed Carthaginians surrendered; but when required to quit their city, they resolved to defend it to the last. Scipio Æmilianus, son of the conqueror of Macedon, took the place, after two years' siege; when 50,000 asked quarter, though vast numbers fired their houses and perished, rather than yield. During seventeen days Carthage was in flames: and the philosophic Scipio could not help observing to Polybius the historian, who accompanied him, how much he dreaded that such would soon be the fate of Rome. Thus fell Carthage, 147; and so inveterate was the hatred of its enemies, that the senate sent orders for the razing of every wall, and for the demolition to powder of the bricks and stones themselves. In a few days, that city which had been the seat of commerce, the model of magnificence, the common store of the wealth of nations; which had colonized the isles of the Mediterranean, all Spain, the centre of Gaul, the south of Britain, and the whole of Ireland; left scarcely a trace of its existence! That the very language of so civilized a state should have perished is next to impossible: the people must have written something, or rather many books than few. Where are they then? or where is even *one*? They, of course, spoke and wrote in the Phœnician language, or in a dialect of it; and, colonists as they were, must have spread their tongue over every part of Europe. Where is it then? It would be singular, though from modern researches not unlikely, if the lost Carthaginian should be the *Gaelic*, a language at this hour *living* in the highlands and islands of Scotland, in Wales, and in Ireland. The Gaelic or Celtic was spoken by the Galli, who inhabited part of the modern

France and Germany, where the Carthaginians had colonies; and a portion of Punic, preserved in a scene of Plautus, appears to be nearly pure Cælic. The Phœnician was a dialect of the Hebrew, and all Carthaginian names evince their Hebrew origin. The Romans commenced a new city 123 B. C. on the same site, which never rose to importance; but it was chosen afterwards by Julius Cæsar, to plant a small colony, which existed till 439 after Christ, when Genseric made it the capital of the Vandal empire; and so it remained more than a century. The sewers and some of the stone water-courses of ancient Carthage, of immense strength, are still existing; but there are no remnants of exterior buildings, beyond large mounds,

which, upon being penetrated, give forth fragments of marble pillars, and vessels of metal and of clay.

Fall of Corinth. This occurred in the same year with that of Carthage, 147, when Mummius, the Roman consul, burned it to the ground. The riches found therein were immense; and during the conflagration, the metals, of which there were extraordinary stores, mingled together and formed a valuable compound, afterwards called Corinthian brass; though the term had been applied to a mixture of copper, gold, and silver, of which the Corinthian smiths and jewellers had made drinking-vessels, to their great profit. Corinth had existed 1229 years.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Terence, a native of Carthage, was born in slavery. Becoming the property of a Roman senator, Terentius Lucanus, he was so struck with his abilities, that he manumitted and educated him, and gave him his name. Having an inclination for the Greek dramatic productions, he translated into Latin numerous comedies of Menander and Apollodorus; and the only works of Terence now extant are six of these plays. Their structure is essentially Grecian; but the surprising neatness, correctness of idiom, and conciseness of expression every where observable, render them worthy of a high rank amongst original Roman productions. Terence quitted Rome at the age of thirty-five, and being never heard of more, was supposed to have been drowned on his return from Greece, 159.

Aristarchus, the critic of Samos, was intrusted with the education of Philometor's sons. He revised the poems of Homer with such severity, that the appellation Aristarchus, like Zoilus, is now used to denote a caustic critic.

Polybius, the Greek historian,

learned the art of war under Philopœmen, and when fighting on the side of the Achæans became prisoner to the Romans. Scipio Æmilianus obtained his liberty, and induced him to accompany him to Carthage; but after the death of that general, he devoted himself to literature, and wrote his universal history, of which five books alone remain.

Carneades, a philosopher of Cyrene, in Africa, came to Rome, and captivated the youth by descanting on the subject of justice, or some other virtue, on the one day, and on the next refuting with skill all his own arguments. Cato the censor hurried him back to Athens, whence he had come on an embassy; telling him, 'that the Romans professed arms and war, and that eloquence was for weaker men.'

Jesus, son of Sirach, an Alexandrian Jew, author of the book of Ecclesiasticus. The work contains a fine system of moral, political, and theological precepts; but it is chiefly valuable for the general rules it lays down for the daily regulation of life. So great esteem had it amongst ancient writers, that they termed it Panareton.

as containing a complete breviary of the moral virtues.

and elegant eclogues have been deemed superior to those of all other pastoral Greek poets.

Moschus of Syracuse, whose sweet

SECTION VII.

PTOLEMY VII. (*PHYSCON*), KING OF EGYPT.

145 TO 116—29 YEARS.

Physcon, brother of *Philometor*, derived his surname from his protuberant stomach. His tyranny was so excessive that the people of Alexandria deserted their city to avoid the daily massacres; and seeking an asylum in Greece, they introduced there the arts and sciences of Egypt. Having divorced his queen, *Cleopatra*, she formed a party against him, and took the reins of government into her own hands: upon which *Physcon* retired to Cyprus, but in a short time recovered his throne. He was, notwithstanding his violence, the patron of the learned; and the year 137, in which he gave an especial invitation to men of talent to resort to his court, has been marked by historians as a grand literary epocha.

EVENTS.

The Numantine War. Numantia, a city and state of Spain, after braving the Roman arms for eight years, fell to *Scipio Emilianus*, 133. That general besieged the place with 60,000 men; and the garrison, rather than yield to the enemy, eat their horses, preyed upon the bodies of the slain, and eventually firing their houses, perished to a man.

The Apocryphal History ends, 135; so that there is nothing known more of the Jewish proceedings, save through Roman writers, until the time of the Evangelists.

The Servile War. One *Ennus*, a Syrian, pretending he had a commission from heaven to emancipate the Roman slaves, raised an insurrection of them, 134, and 70,000 men were soon in arms under him. Four pretors were defeated by them in succession: but at length the consul *Rupilius* effectually put them down, 131.

Rebellion of the Gracchi. *Tiberius* and *Caius Gracchus*, rendered themselves notorious in Rome by their declarations in favour of popular rights. *Tiberius* even obtained the passing of the Agrarian law, and superintended the

equal division of the conquered lands, and of the riches of *Attalus*, amongst the people. *Nasica*, however, assassinated him, 133; and *Caius* hereupon attempted, in his capacity of tribune, to crush the power of the aristocracy altogether. The patrician party, however, excited a counter-revolution: and *Caius* was put to death by the consul *Opimius* in the temple of *Diana*, 121, his body being thrown into the *Tiber*, and his family forbidden to put on mourning for his death.

Pergamus added to Rome, by the will of *Attalus*, its king, who died 133. *Attalic wealth* became a term henceforth at Rome to express an unlooked-for acquisition of property.

The Balearic Pirates, inhabiting what are now *Ivica*, *Majorca*, and *Minorca*, were made tributary by the Romans 123. The Greeks called these Carthaginian settlers, *Baleares*, from ballein to throw, because of their skill in sling-throwing. The isles now belong to Spain: and would produce more wine, corn, and oil than could be consumed by the inhabitants, were they properly cultivated.

The Pontificate of Hyrcanus I.

John Hyrcanus, who succeeded his father, Simon, as high-priest and ruler of the Jews, 136, was besieged in Jerusalem by Antiochus Sidetes, king of Syria; and compelled to pay tribute for Joppa and other towns. When Antiochus, however, fell in his war with Parthia, Hyrcanus declared Judæa independent, seized Shechem, the seat of the Samaritan sect, subdued the Idumæans, and sent an embassy to the Roman senate with a splendid cup and shield, to court its alliance. After ruling over Judæa, Galilee, and Samaria thirty years, he died, highly regarded, 106. It was during the pontificate of Hyrcanus, that the proud and turbulent sect of Pharisees arose, so called from *parash*, to separate; because its disciples separated themselves from others, by

extraordinary pretences to piety. They held the tradition of the elders in as high esteem as the written law; fasted and prayed; gave alms in public; were conscientious in the payment of tithes, the washing of hands, and the like; while they neglected 'the weightier matters of the law,' justice, fidelity, mercy, and the love of God. They were necessarily opponents of the Sadducees, who rejected all traditions; and courting popular applause as they did, opposing their own rulers first, and then their Roman conquerors, they were the proximate cause of the downfall of the Jewish state. The *Essenes*, arising out of the Pharisees, mingled their opinions singularly with those of the Sadducees; affirming that, although the body would not rise again, the spirit would survive.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Hipparchus, of Nicæa, who first discovered the parallax of the planets (or the distance between their real and apparent position) and laid the foundation of trigonometry. He determined longitude and latitude, fixing the first degree of longitude at the Canaries; and found out the exact time of eclipses.

Viriathus, a shepherd of Spain, who had seized upon that Roman province, and for fourteen years ruled over it in barbaric pomp, was murdered by his own servants 140, at the instigation of Cæpio, the Roman general. He rose to power as head of a gang of robbers, and had defeated various armies sent against him from Rome.]

SECTION VIII.

PTOLEMY VIII. (*LATHYRUS*), KING OF EGYPT.

116 TO 80—36 YEARS.

Lathyrus, son of Physcon, had ruled eleven years in conjunction with his mother Cleopatra, when she expelled him, to place his brother Alexander in his stead. Lathyrus took refuge in Cyprus, and had governed that island peacefully eighteen years, when he was recalled by the Alexandrians, in consequence of the murder of Cleopatra. That ambitious woman had fallen by the hands of her own son, Alexander, who, now spurned by the Egyptians as a parricide, employed himself in fruitless endeavours to regain his throne. He was eventually killed in an attempt to land in Cyprus; and Lathyrus, in full possession of power, turned his arms against the city of Thebes, which had revolted. For three years the inhabitants held out; but being at length compelled to yield, the place was given up to be plundered, and was so nearly ruined, as never after to make a figure in Egyptian history. The remainder of this king's life passed in tranquillity; and he died respected by his subjects.

EVENTS.

The Jugurthine War. Micipsa succeeded his father Masinissa, king of Numidia, in Africa, and educated his nephew Jugurtha with his own sons, Adherbal and Hiempsal; but as Jugurtha was ambitious, Micipsa sent him under Scipio, then besieging Numantia, hoping he might fall in battle. On the contrary, he survived, and gained the friendship of Scipio by his bravery. Micipsa, at his death, left him joint king with his own sons; but Jugurtha murdered Hiempsal, and banished Adherbal, who applied to Rome for aid. The gold of Jugurtha prevented his obtaining assistance, and he was put to death by the Numidians at Ciria. The Romans, in 111, made war upon Jugurtha, now sole sovereign of Numidia; and after a contest of five years (the Roman forces being conducted by Metellus, Sylla, and Marius) he was betrayed by Bocchus, his father-in-law, brought captive to Rome, and starved to death in prison.

The Cimbric War. The Cimbri and Teutones, German tribes, invaded Rome simultaneously 109, and continued to harass the nation for eight years. In the first battle, they destroyed 80,000 Romans under the consuls Manlius and Cæpio; but Marius defeated them with immense slaughter; and in the next year, the war was ended by the defeat of the Cimbri alone on the banks of the Athesis, in Italy, by Marius and Catulus; when 140,000 of the barbarians were slain.

The Pontificate of Alexander Jannæus. Aristobulus had succeeded his father, Hyrcanus, as pontiff, but dying in a year, was followed, 105, by his brother Jannæus. His first act was an attempt to recover the seaport of Ptolemais; but Lathyrus, then king of Cyprus, aiding the inhabitants, he was obliged to raise the siege. Lathyrus soon after attacked Jerusalem, and in a pitched battle killed 30,000 Jews; but Cleopatra of Egypt, his mother, sent a large force to assist Jannæus

against her son, and the king of Cyprus was compelled to retreat to his island, 101. Some time after these events, Jannæus lost 10,000 men in a contest with the prince of Philadelphia at Amathus; whereon the Pharisees, the radicals of their day, stirred up a sanguinary civil strife, which continued more or less until the close of the pontiff's reign. It broke out, 95; when Jannæus, upon entering the temple as usual to officiate as high-priest, was hooted by the populace, and pelted with citrons. Having a large guard about his person, he assaulted the mob, and slew 6000 persons; and perceiving that he had intimidated his assailants, he raised an additional body-guard of 6000 foreign mercenary soldiers, with which he destroyed the garrison of Bethome, executing 800 of the insurgents on crosses at Jerusalem, in the presence of their wives and children. He was killed at the siege of Ragaba, beyond Jordan, 78, and succeeded by his queen Alexandra.

Lusitania added to Rome. Lusitania, the modern Portugal, was made a Roman province by Dolabella. The inhabitants were a predatory and warlike race, unpolished in manners, exceedingly abstemious in diet, and attached to their country. It was usual among them to expose their sick in the highways, that their diseases might be cured by the advice of passers by.

Cyrene added to Rome. Ptolemy Appion, king of Cyrene, in Africa, dying in 97, bequeathed his country to the Romans. The capital was beautifully situated in a fertile plain eleven miles from the shores of the Mediterranean; and the country, which was usually called Pentapolis, on account of its containing five cities, gave birth to Aristippus, Callimachus, Eratosthenes, Carneades, and other eminent men. It was originally a Spartan colony.

The Social War disturbed Italy for three years. It was occasioned by the

consuls having deprived the temporary residents of Rome of their right to vote on public occasions; but when the senate saw the Samnites and other states form a confederacy against it, all the privileges of citizenship were given to the seceders.

The Mithridatic War of twenty-six years was waged by the Romans with Mithridates the Great, king of Pontus; and began 89. The Romans having deprived him of Cappadocia, he issued a mandate for the massacre of every Roman in his dominions; and in one night, no less than 150,000 are said to have fallen. Sylla commanded the large army sent to avenge this grievous injury, and took from him all the Ionian cities in Asia Minor. A peace was then agreed upon; but Mithridates broke the treaty, and Pompey, who had arrived with another force, gave him battle by moonlight on a plain by the river Euphrates, and wholly defeating him, made Pontus tributary. When the people soon after placed his son on the throne to supersede him, Mithridates destroyed himself, 63. Mithridates was not only remarkable as a general and politician, but well skilled in medicine, and able to converse fluently in twenty-four languages.

The Contest between Marius and Sylla. Marius had risen from the grade of a peasant to the highest rank in the Roman army; and Sylla had acted under him as quæstor, when he went into Africa against Jugurtha. These ambitious men had separate commands after this war; and it was when the senate had determined to send a force against Mithridates, that their rivalry was manifest. Each desired to head the expedition, but Sylla obtained the appointment; whereon Marius excited an insurrection of the plebeians, and his opponent escaped with difficulty from Rome, which shortly after witnessed the death of many of Sylla's adherents. Sylla again entered the city sword in hand, and it became the turn of Marius to flee: his partisans were then sacri-

ficed, and Sylla supposing he had subdued his rival, departed with the army for Greece. Cinna the consul, however, declared for Marius; and that general, after numberless perils, and spending a whole night up to his chin in a quagmire, once more saw himself in a capacity to punish his enemies. He entered Rome in arms, and massacred all who had been obnoxious to him. Nothing can exceed the atrocities which were now perpetrated: even his own minions could not approach their general but with terror. Marius died a few months after these sanguinary proceedings, and Cinna fell during a tumult; and when Sylla returned from the Mithridatic war, he attacked all who had supported his opponent. Seven thousand citizens, to whom pardon had been promised, were slaughtered in cold blood in the circus; and a multitude of the most opulent were put to death, before the tyrant declared his purpose of being perpetual dictator, 82, six years from the commencement of the civil strife. On a sudden, however, he abdicated his power; and retiring to Puteoli, spent the remainder of his days in riot and debauchery.

Athens added to Rome. Sylla had the glory of converting to a Roman province this most powerful, enlightened, and interesting state of Greece, 86.

Destruction of Egyptian Thebes, 84. This ancient city, in the time of its splendour, had a circumference of twenty-three miles, and could send into the field two millions of fighting men, and 20,000 chariots. Cambyses had dismantled it, and destroyed much of its grandeur; but Lathyrus left scarcely a building uninjured. Very important ruins, however, still exist; and Denon, who was with Napoleon's army in Egypt, states that when the soldiers first caught sight of its scattered remnants, they halted of their own accord, and with one spontaneous movement, clapped their hands. The gateway of the temple of Luxor, fifty-seven feet

high, two perfect obelisks with hieroglyphics, two colossal statues of red granite, besides sphynxes, long ranges of pillars, and fallen blocks of marble of gigantic size, bearing inscriptions over which time appears to have had

no power, bear testimony to the pristine magnificence of hundred-gated Thebes, as Homer designated it. It was the capital of the ancient kings of Egypt, as the numerous sculptures, representing royal triumphs, show.

EMINENT PERSON.

Asclepiades, founder of a medical sect at Rome, held that it was possible for every man to ward off disease, if he would pay strict attention to his health. He affirmed that a constitu-

tion naturally delicate was as capable of longevity as one of a more robust kind; observing that glass, with due care, would endure as long as iron.

SECTION IX.

PTOLEMY IX. (*ALEXANDER*), KING OF EGYPT.

80 TO 65—15 YEARS.

Alexander, son of that Alexander who ruled under Cleopatra, had been sent, when a boy, by that queen to Cos, with all her jewels. Mithridates, becoming master of the island, the prince and the treasures fell into his hands; and taking a fancy to Alexander, he gave him an excellent education. The latter, however, fearing a man who had shed the blood of his own children, escaped to the camp of Sylla, then warring in Asia; who, on the death of Lathyrus, enabled him to succeed to the Egyptian throne, by sharing it with his sister Cleopatra. That princess he is said to have murdered; and throughout his reign he displayed himself so remorseless a tyrant, that his people rose against him, and he retired to Tyre, 65.

EVENTS.

The Rebellion of Spartacus. Spartacus, a gladiator, and Thracian shepherd, headed 10,000 men against the Romans, 73. The war which ensued, and lasted two years, is called the servile war, wherein the Romans were at first defeated; but at length Crassus gained a complete victory over the rebels, slaying 12,000 of them together with their leader. When wounded in the leg, Spartacus knelt and continued the contest; and when at last he sank, he fell upon a heap of Romans whom he had sacrificed to his fury.

Crete added to Rome. This island, the modern Cyprus, one of the largest in the Mediterranean, was reduced by the consul Metellus, 66, after having long groaned under democratic tyranny. It was originally colonized

by Phrygia, Achaia, and other Grecian states; Jupiter too was educated there; and chalk being found in the island in large quantities was called creta by the Romans, and made an important article of commerce.

Syria added to Rome. Pompey, the Roman general, after defeating Mithridates of Pontus, and Tigranes, king of Armenia, visited countries scarcely known to his nation; and, like a master of the world, disposed of kingdoms and provinces, and received homage from twelve crowned heads at once. Entering Syria, 65, he de-throned Antiochus Asiaticus, observing that, as he had lived quietly in exile while Tigranes had usurped his crown, he was unworthy of command. Thus was an end put to the rule of the Seleucidæ; and their capital, Babylon,

gradually declined from this period. immense tumuli of temples, palaces, and human habitations, forming long and varied lines of ruins, are all that remain of that proud city at this hour. The temple of Belus, as the tower of Babel was called, half a mile in circumference, and a furlong in height; the hanging gardens, which, piled in successive terraces, towered above the walls; the embankments which restrained the Euphrates; the hundred brazen gates;—all displaying the mightiest works of mortals concentrated in a single spot,—lie now levelled with the ground, or, here and there afford, in some vestige of a building which the sands have supported, a cavern for the lords of the desert, whose roar is all that the traveller has to remind him of animal existence, when he stands on one of its mounds, and looks upon the dreary and lonely scene around him.

Judæa added to Rome. Alexandra, the wife of Jannæus, succeeded him with the title of queen of the Jews, 78; and having made the Pharisees her councillors, they demanded justice against the advisers of the crucifixion of the 800, thus involving all the ad-

herents of the late pontiff. The most obnoxious of the royalists were therefore put to death, and yet more extensive violence would have been resorted to, but for the death of the queen, 69. Her son Hyrcanus II. succeeded, with the title of king, when a contest for power ensued between him and his brother Aristobulus, wherein Antipater, governor of the Jewish province of Idumæa, and father of the afterwards celebrated Herod, took part with Hyrcanus, and obtained a force of 50,000 men in his aid from Aretas, an Arabian king. Pompey, however, after his reduction of Syria, marched upon Jerusalem, 63, and in six months took it by assault; when he confirmed Hyrcanus in the pontificate, but refused to allow him the title of king. Having declared the state tributary to Rome, and added Aristobulus and his four children to the captives intended to grace his triumph in the capitol, the conqueror sent soldiers into the chief cities to secure the regular payment of the tribute-money; thus establishing the form of government which existed throughout our Lord's ministry, and until the final destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Lucullus, a Roman general, noted for his luxury and military talents. His skill was especially shown against Tigranes, whom he defeated near the Euphrates; but his strict discipline having offended the soldiery, Pompey was sent to supplant him; so that, after his triumphant entry into Rome, he resigned his command. His mode of life in retirement was sumptuous without excess: his grounds, his house, his table, were elegant, and his expenditure great, though probably exaggerated by a people studiously opposed to all that tended to enervate the mind.

Roscius, a Roman actor, notwithstanding a cast in the eye, was preferred without a mask, as the people were delighted with his elegant pronunciation, sweet voice, and power of depicting the passions by his features. When accused of dishonourable acts, Cicero, his pupil, defended him in an able oration, still extant.

Lucretius, the Roman poet and philosopher, who had studied at Athens, gave forth his atheistical notions in 'De rerum naturâ,' a poem, only to be admired for its pure latinity. He destroyed himself, 54.

SECTION X.

PTOLEMY X. (*AULETES*), KING OF EGYPT.

65 TO 51—14 YEARS.

Auletes, or the flute-player, though his kingdom had been left by his predecessor to the Romans, made interest with Cæsar, the consul, and had his succession confirmed, on paying half a million sterling to the Roman treasury. His subjects revolting when he yielded Cyprus to Rome, Auletes fled thither; and while absent, his daughter Berenice established herself on the throne. He was restored however by Gabinus, and put his daughter to death.

EVENTS.

The Catiline Conspiracy. Catiline, of a noble family, having squandered his property, conspired to plunder the Roman treasury, extirpate the senate, and fire the city. The plea he urged for such atrocious proceedings, was his having been unjustly refused the consulship. Cicero, one of the consuls, discovered the plot; and Catiline, after declaring his full purpose in the senate, fled to Gaul. With an army which he levied in that country, composed of raw and undisciplined troops, he attacked Petreius, the other consul; but was entirely defeated, and lost his life in the contest, 63.

Britain added 'to Rome. Julius Cæsar, then at the head of the Roman forces in Gaul, having arrived in the parts about the modern Calais in the autumn of 55, resolved on a descent upon Britain, whose white cliffs were distinctly perceptible from his present situation. As the Gauls knew little of the inhabitants beyond what certain traders communicated to them, the general sent for some of these adventurers; but found them utterly ignorant of the habits, number, and mode of warfare of the people. He therefore despatched Volusenus to explore the coast with a vessel of war; but the traders having informed the Britons of their interview with Cæsar, a deputation was sent into Gaul, to assure the general that the island would willingly pay tribute to Rome. Having taken hostages from the embassy, Cæsar sent back the party under the care of Commius, whom he had just made king of the Gallic tribe of

Atrebrates, and whom he desired to prepare the people for his arrival; and when he had assembled as many ships of various sizes as were sufficient to transport the troops, he set sail, and arrived off the coast of Kent at ten in the forenoon of a certain day. The cliffs being covered with armed men, Cæsar sailed on for several miles, till he came to a spot where there could be no opposition to his landing. The shelving shore, however, presented obstacles which would have been insurmountable but for the bravery of the standard-bearer of the tenth legion. This person, leaping from his ship into the sea, waded with the eagle in his hand towards the shore, though the Britons had by this time come up to the fleet, and were pouring down from the cliffs upon the beach. An example so heroic was speedily followed by the soldiers, who were seen descending and forming in battle array, though covered by water to the waist. A vigorous attack was commenced by such of the islanders as were on horseback; who, dashing into the waves, cut down the Romans as they were struggling to find ground, and were backed by large parties on foot, who showered their arrows upon the enemy. The dry land was, however, at length reached by the invaders, and the Britons, unable to bear their regular assault, were glad to sue for peace. It was then found that Commius had been put in chains upon landing; and Cæsar, having liberated him, was on the point of exacting hard terms from the people, when a violent storm drove

many of his ships as far west as the modern Cornwall. The islanders, encouraged by the circumstance, failed not to harass their enemies by every available means; and a skirmish is mentioned by Cæsar between them and the seventh legion, while the latter were cutting down corn in a field, which enables him to describe the mode of fighting of our ancestors. 'Driving round in their chariots, and casting darts in all quarters first, they usually disorder the ranks by the terror of their horses, and the rumbling of their wheels; and having wrought themselves in between the troops of the cavalry, they leap from their chariots, and fight on foot. The charioteers themselves retire upon this from the action to a short distance, and so station themselves with the carriages, that the contending party, if likely to be overpowered, has a free retreat to the same. Thus they act with the nimbleness of cavalry and the firmness of infantry; and, by daily practice, become so expert that they can, even on sloping ground, check their horses though at full gallop, turn them, run along the pole, rest on the harness, and thence with great dexterity leap back again into the chariot.' On the approach of Cæsar, the Britons took to their heels, and the foraging party pursued their labours in peace; but in a day or two after, a pitched battle ensued in open ground, and Cæsar being as usual victorious, demanded double the number of hostages, and returned to the country of the Morini. He returned in the following year and burned Verulam (the site of the present St. Alban's), the capital of king Cassivelaunus, fixing the plan of tribute; but the island was never fully under the power of Rome until Agricola, the general of Vespasian, was its governor, A.D. 80. In religion, our ancestors were like their conquerors, Pagans: they sacrificed living persons to their supreme god, burning them, crowded together, in osier baskets.

They were divided into three estates, chieftains, priests, and commonalty; the last being subservient to the two former. There were three orders of priests: the druids, who managed all affairs of state and religion under an arch-druid, and who were chosen from the first families in the island; the vates, who taught astronomy, and were considered possessed of superhuman knowledge; and the bards, who sang the praises of heroes, and handed down the history of the country in legendary tales. As respects the origin of the nation, there can be little doubt that the island had been peopled in remote times by the Scandinavians, or northmen, who, renowned for their predatory habits, and ability to pass a winter at sea in open boats, descended upon the northern coast of Gaul, and upon the eastern shore of Britain, giving the name of Northmandy to the former. The Carthaginians, nevertheless, had colonized much of the southern coast, and especially Cornwall, to which they had long traded for tin; and the Cornish people, as do the Welch, Irish, and highlanders of Scotland, still show traces, in more than their Celtic language, of their Phœnician origin. England had its name of *Albion* from the whiteness of its cliffs: the word *Britain* is Celtic, and denotes separation, cut off as the island is from the continent of Europe. The other chief European countries, at the time of Cæsar's invasion of Britain, were thus named by the Romans: Norway and Sweden, *Scandinavia*; Denmark, *Cimbria*; Scotland, *Caledonia*; Ireland, *Hibernia*; Wales, *Cambria*; France, *Gallia*; Holland, *Batavia*; Poland, *Lithuania*; Switzerland, *Helvetia*; Spain, *Iberia*; Portugal, *Lusitania*; Netherlands and part of France, *Belgium*; Calabria, *Magna Græcia*; Germany, *Germania*; Russia in Europe, *Sarmatia*; Russia in Asia, *Scythia*.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Orodes, king of Parthia, who took *Brutus* and *Cassius* at *Philippi*; and, *Crassus*, the Roman general, prisoner, after reigning fifty years, was murdered by his own son, *Phraates*, put him to death, and poured molten lead into his skull. *Orodes* aided

SECTION XI.

PTOLEMY XI. (*DIONYSIUS*), KING OF EGYPT.

51 TO 46—5 YEARS.

Dionysius, or *Bacchus*, son of *Auletes*, ascended the throne though only ten, conjointly with *Cleopatra*, his sister, whom he afterwards married, pursuant to the will of his father and the practice of the country. He was under the guardianship of *Pompey*, the Roman general, who sought an asylum in Egypt after the battle of *Pharsalia*. The ministers of the youthful king, to gain *Cæsar's* favour, murdered the unhappy fugitive, and sent his head to the conqueror; who, upon landing at *Alexandria*, confirmed *Ptolemy* and *Cleopatra* in the government. Some arrangements, however, with respect to *Cyprus* not pleasing *Dionysius*, he opposed *Cæsar* in battle; and escaping upon seeing his forces routed, he was drowned in the Nile, 46, leaving *Cleopatra* sole ruler of Egypt.

EVENTS.

The Civil War of Cæsar and Pompey. *Julius Cæsar*, on the expiration of his consulship, had taken possession, 58, of the government of Gaul, delegated to him by the senate for five years, with the command of an army of four legions. It was then that he had entered on that brilliant career of military glory, which it has been the lot of few subsequent conquerors to rival. He not only brought the whole country, divided as it had been into petty sovereignties, to the form of a Roman province, but repulsed the German tribes, defeating their king *Ariovistus*, and breaking up a formidable confederacy framed to destroy the power of Rome. As his commission had been renewed for a second term of five years, the aspiring general remained in Gaul until 51; when he was called to act upon a more important theatre. *Pompey*, who with *Cæsar* and *Crassus* had formed the first triumvirate, became suddenly jealous of *Cæsar's* successes, and induced the senate to recal him. The general refused submission; and on being declared a public enemy, passed with his usual activity across the *Rubicon*, a small stream which bounded the *Gallic* province, and marched towards Rome. *Pompey*, on the other hand, unable to collect a sufficient force to oppose him, fled into Greece, leaving Italy in the power of his rival; and *Cæsar*, having entered Rome triumphant, had no sooner taken possession of its treasures, and appointed *Marc Antony* his deputy, than he hurried to Spain to put down the force raised against him by the partisans of *Pompey*, and returning successful, was declared dictator. *Pompey* was still in Greece, attended by the heads of the patrician party, and commanding a numerous army. Thither *Cæsar* proceeded; and with forces inferior in number, but consisting of veterans used to victory, met him on the plains of *Pharsalia*, in *Thessaly*, 48, and gave him a complete overthrow. Thus was the republican form of government at Rome

for ever abolished, after a duration of 461 years; for though Cæsar left it for his successor to assume the title of

EMINENT

Julius Cæsar, perhaps the most deservedly celebrated of ancient commanders, after receiving a liberal education in Rhodes, was appointed high-priest of the Romans; and subsequently made governor of Spain, and consul. In 60 he formed one in the first triumvirate, with Pompey and Crassus; and leaving Pompey in Rome, while Crassus removed to Syria, he entered upon the government of Gaul. The result of his operations may be estimated by his capture of 800 towns, his subjugation of 300 petty states, and his having enriched himself and his followers to an almost unlimited extent. Pompey had meanwhile married Cæsar's daughter, Julia; but this intimate tie prevented not the harsh suspicions of the former towards his father-in-law. The consequence was Cæsar's crossing the Rubicon (now the Rugone), in arms; and thus having entered the republic, he was considered a traitor, whether he retreated or not. Hence 'to pass the Rubicon,' is a common mode of expression for undertakings from which there is no retreat. At Pharsalia, near the modern Constantinople, he defeated Pompey, who fled into Egypt, and was there murdered by Dionysius. Cæsar proceeded thither also, and wept when he heard of his rival's cruel death. Amid the gaities of Cleopatra's court, however, he forgot both his country and his character; yet had he address enough to make Egypt tributary, and after defeating Cato, Scipio, and Juba, he returned once more to Rome, with the high title of perpetual dictator. The chief senators, envious of his fame, meditated his destruction; and he was stabbed in the senate-house, 44. Cæsar was ambitious, but not like Sylla cruel; he was also munificent and benevolent, a man of elegant and cultivated mind, an eloquent speaker, and a lucid and accomplished writer. His commentaries are deservedly held

king, he was virtually sovereign of an empire the most potent and extensive in the world.

PERSONS.

in high esteem for their pure latinity, elegance of diction, and conciseness of narration; not to mention their accurate and sensible notices of men, manners, and customs. The name of Cæsar is supposed to have been given him from *cæsaries*, a bushy head of hair; and eleven of his successors took the same appellation.

Cneus Pompey was distinguished for his genuine love of country. After the fatal contest of Pharsalia, he fled to Egypt, confident he should find a friend in the youthful Dionysius, whose throne he had recently secured to him. That king sent a boat to convey him from his ship to the land, and the general accordingly quitted his galley, after taking a tender leave of his wife, Cornelia; but no sooner had he set foot on the shore, than he was assassinated in her sight. The ministers of Dionysius sent the general's head to Cæsar; while Philip, one of his freedmen, burned his body on the sands.

Cato of Utica, grandson of Cato the elder, early took up arms for his country; and when Cæsar was appointed over Gaul, observed to the senators, that they had introduced a tyrant into the capitol. After the battle of Pharsalia, where Cato had been on Pompey's side, he traversed the deserts of Libya to join Scipio. Upon the defeat of that general, he fortified himself in Utica, near Carthage; and when Cæsar approached the city, he stabbed himself, after reading Plato's treatise on the immortality of the soul, 46. Addison's tragedy gives the main events of the Stoic's life with great taste and effect.

Sosigenes, an Egyptian mathematician, assisting Cæsar to reform the calendar, gave 445 days to the year 46, thence called the year of confusion. As the calendar henceforward commenced with the solar year, this period is termed the Julian era, in honour of Cæsar.

SECTION XII.

PTOLEMY XII. (*CLEOPATRA*), QUEEN OF EGYPT.

46 TO 31—15 YEARS.

Ptolemy Cleopatra, become sole mistress of Egypt by the death of her brother and husband, courted his conqueror by every means in her power; and Cæsar having confirmed her on the throne, remained some time in Alexandria, forgetful of his fame and character amidst the luxuries of her court. After his murder, Cleopatra ungratefully gave aid to Brutus, the chief of his assassins; for which Antony cited her before him. Captivated however by her charms and dignity, the triumvir divorced his wife Octavia, the sister of Octavius (afterwards the emperor Augustus), to marry her; a measure which brought down destruction upon the pair. Octavius, to revenge the insult, approached Egypt with a fleet; and being met by the ships of Cleopatra, off Actium, the latter were beaten, and Antony and the queen escaped to Egypt only to die. Antony stabbed himself; and Cleopatra, although promised pardon by Octavius, applying an asp to her bosom, was poisoned by its venom. Egypt became henceforth a province of Rome. Cleopatra was a voluptuous woman; and, in proof of her extravagance, melted, on occasion of a banquet to Antony, some very precious pearls, and swallowed them in her wine. She possessed a high spirit, great confidence, and a commanding speech; and it is said that she could converse in seven different tongues with fluency.

EVENTS.

Assassination of Cæsar, 44. Sixty senators were in the plot, at the head of which were Brutus and Cassius, prætors of the year. Cæsar was to receive the crown as dictator on the ides of March, a day which the augurs had foretold would be fatal to him; his wife Calpurnia, too, dreamed she saw him killed. Still he went on the ides to the senate-house, where Spurina, an augur, was standing: 'Well, Spurina,' said he, 'the ides are come.' 'Yes,' replied the augur, 'but they are not yet over.' As soon as he had seated himself, the conspirators entered the hall, and approached to salute him; while Cimber, kneeling, pretended to sue for his exiled brother's pardon, and held him fast by the robe. Casca, who was behind, instantly stabbed him in the shoulder, whereon Cæsar turned round and wounded his assailant with the style of his tablets: the party then closed upon him, Cassius piercing him in the face, when he disengaged his robe, and though unarmed, threw many

down. Upon seeing Brutus, however, approach, whom he had so long regarded, aim a blow at his leg, he only exclaimed, 'And you, too, Brutus!' and sank at the base of Pompey's statue; where he was despatched by hands which he vainly thought disarmed by his benefits.

Battle of Philippi. In this celebrated contest, 42, between Augustus and Antony the avengers of Cæsar, and the republican forces of Brutus and Cassius, the former were victorious. According to Plutarch, the ghost of Cæsar appeared to Brutus in his tent on the eve of the battle, announcing that he should meet him at Philippi. Brutus fled from the field; but soon after put himself to death by falling on his sword.

The Jews under Herod the Great. Pacorus, the son and general of Orodes, supported Pompey's party in Judæa, and deposed Hyrcanus II., 40, to place that pontiff's nephew, Aristobulus, in his stead. He carried off the aged priest to Seleucia; and

Herod, son of Antipater of Idumæa, through the interest of Antony, became king of the Jews. He proved an iniquitous tyrant: having enticed Hyrcanus from Seleucia under the mask of friendship, he beheaded him; murdered his own wife Mariamne, her mother Alexandra, and three of his own sons; and when he heard

of the birth of our Lord, caused 2000 children of Jerusalem to be slaughtered, hoping to include Him who was born 'King of the Jews.' After a reign of forty years he died, in the first of the Christian era; having, by his usurpation and proscriptions, put an end to the Asmonean dynasty.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Marcus Tullius Cicero became successively ædile, prætor, and consul; and his conduct in the Catiline conspiracy gained him the title of father of his country. The infamous Clodius obtained his banishment; but he was subsequently employed in many important state matters; and his orations laid the foundation of an immortal fame. His enmity to Antony proved fatal to him. He was proscribed by that triumvir; and while escaping in a litter towards the sea of Caieta, was overtaken and decapitated. The learning and abilities of Cicero, or Tully as he is familiarly called, have been the admiration of every age and country: and his style is accounted the standard of pure latinity. He was of a timid disposition; and he, who shone as the father of Roman eloquence, never ascended the pulpit to harangue, without a secret emotion of dread.

Marcus Junius Brutus, descended from the original bestower of liberty on his country, espoused the side of Pompey; and surviving the battle of Pharsalia, became the regarded friend of Cæsar, who loaded him with benefits. When, however, he observed the ambitious designs of his patron, he

effected his destruction; and retiring to Greece, raised troops against Antony and Octavius, who constituted, with Lepidus, the new triumvirate. At Philippi was made the last great effort in the cause of republican Rome. Cassius, who commanded under Brutus, had his wing defeated, and destroyed himself rather than fall into Antony's hands; and Brutus was ultimately compelled to fly; when he threw himself upon his sword, and perished. When his wife Portia, Cato's daughter, heard of his death, she put an end to her life, by swallowing burning coals.

Sallust, the Latin historian, became quæstor and consul. But he was degraded from the rank of a senator for licentious conduct; and only obtained restoration by embracing the cause of Cæsar. He married Terentia, the divorced wife of Cicero, much to the orator's annoyance; whose virtues are but slightly alluded to by the otherwise accurate historian. His only extant works are the accounts of Catiline's conspiracy and Jugurtha's wars; productions admirable for their elegance, vigour, and accurate portraiture of human character.

SECTION XIII.

OCTAVIUS, AFTERWARDS AUGUSTUS, CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

B. C. 31 TO 14 A. D.

Octavius, who had been adopted by his uncle Julius, was eighteen at the period of the assassination, and at twenty became consul. Determined to avenge his uncle's death, he vigorously acted with Marc Antony and Lepidus, in sacri-

ficing 300 senators and 200 knights, not even sparing his friend Cicero. The head of Brutus was thrown at the feet of Cæsar's statue ; and the lands of the proscribed were divided amongst the victorious soldiery. Family disputes, however, soon divided Antony and Octavius. The former had espoused the sister of his colleague ; but slighting his wife for Cleopatra, Octavius, in deep resentment, took up arms, and with all the force which Italy could raise, attacked him off Actium in Epirus, 31. Antony was supported by the allies of Cleopatra ; but that queen, who accompanied the fleet, becoming terrified during the contest, took to flight with sixty ships, and thus decided his fate. He followed her to Egypt, and suffered himself to be besieged in Alexandria ; when, rather than grace the triumphal procession of his rival, he sought death with Cleopatra, by falling upon his sword. The conqueror shed tears on finding his enemy was no more ; and having constituted Egypt a Roman province, returned to Italy, received from the senate the name of Augustus, and was acknowledged sovereign of the vast Roman empire. After establishing peace throughout the civilized world, he shut the temple of Janus in the year of our Saviour's birth, and died at Nola, A. D. 14, aged seventy-six. The reign of Augustus was a glorious one. To calculate the amount of his subjects is a matter of impossibility ; the greater portion of Europe, and a large share of Asia and Africa, acknowledged his authority, while a galaxy of learned men, patronised by him, have transmitted to posterity almost all we consider estimable in Roman literature. The title of Augustus was assumed by every subsequent Roman sovereign, and that of Cæsar by his acknowledged heir.

CHIEF EVENTS.

THE ADVENT OF OUR LORD. Not only the Jews, whose prophets had kept in view the coming of one who should act as a mediator between God and a sinful world, but many pagan nations expected such a personage, and that he would reveal himself at the period at which we have arrived. Suetonius, the Roman writer, tells us that one Marathus had declared '*nature* was about to bring forth a king for the people of Rome ;' and Virgil, in his fourth eclogue, is said to have borrowed his description of the Messiah's kingdom of peace from the ancient books of the sibyls. The birth of the promised Saviour took place, it should be observed, five years earlier than the date at which the Christian era commences ; he was born in 6 B. C., and was consequently *five* in the year we denominate *one*. In the year 6, Augustus, ignorantly fulfilling the prophecy of Isaiah as regarded the peaceful entrance of the Son of God into the world, closed the temple of Janus, in token of the cessation of earthly wars, Rome at that moment comprehending the whole of the civi-

lized portion of the globe. Several sects and parties prevailed in the land of our Lord's birth at the moment of his appearance. The Sadducees, Pharisees, and Essenes have been mentioned ; there were also the *Herodians*, or followers of Herod the Great, who, being an Idumæan, joined idolatry with the pure religion, as many of the kings of Israel and Judah had done. In secular matters, the Herodians were violently opposed to the Pharisees, who deemed it unlawful to pay taxes to a heathen nation, as the Jews were compelled to do to the Romans ; Herod, however, having derived his power from Rome, strenuously contended for subjection to the superior monarchy. — *The Scribes*, who, though not exactly a sect, promulgated very peculiar opinions, and united with the Pharisees in most of their superstitions, were doctors of the law, the only authorized teachers, and the most learned men of the nation : it was their province to copy the original scriptures, to preserve them from interpolation, and to expound them to

the people.—*The Publicans* were public officers, Romans or Jews, employed to collect the tribute imposed upon the people by the Romans. This tax was considered by the Jews, not only as a heavy burden in itself, but also as an insult to the honour of their nation; and the evil was increased by the covetousness of the collectors, who, having farmed the tribute at a yearly sum, exercised every method of extortion.

It was in the year 6 B. C., that Augustus commanded the inhabitants of all the countries tributary to Rome to be registered, preparatory to being taxed. Accordingly every man went to enrol his name in his native place; and Joseph, who exercised the humble trade of a carpenter, though a lineal descendant of the illustrious David, quitted Nazareth, his place of abode, with Mary his espoused wife, for Bethlehem, the city of his birth, in order to conform to the Roman decree. The inns were so full on this public occasion, that the pair were under the necessity of lodging in a stable, where Mary brought forth a son, pronounced before his birth to be of divine origin, and laid him in a manger. This wonderful event was made known to some wise men or philosophers of the east, by the appearance of a bright and unusual star, which they understood as an intimation that the promised Messiah of the Jews was born. They therefore left their country, and under the guidance of the star, went first to Jerusalem, and thence to Bethlehem; where, notwithstanding the obscurity of his parentage, and the meanness of his state, they paid their homage to the new-born king, presenting him with gold, and frankincense, and myrrh. Herod, on hearing of the devotion of men of such acknowledged rank to one whom he supposed a rival, ordered the massacre of all infants in the city of Bethlehem; but Joseph, directed by a superior power, conveyed the holy child and its mother into Egypt, and staid there until the tyrant's death was soon after announced

to him. At the period of circumcision, the infant had been named Jesus (in Hebrew, Jehovah or Saviour); the appellation of Christ (anointed, the same as Messiah) was not given him until he entered upon his divine office, at thirty years of age. When twelve years old, his parents took him to the feast of passover at Jerusalem; and it was on this occasion that he convinced them he was aware of his high calling, when they reproved him for staying to argue with the learned doctors of the temple. That he remained subject to his reputed father from this time until the period of his ministry, there can be little doubt; but there is no reason to suppose, as many have done, that he occupied himself in his mean calling, simply because it was asked among the common people, when he began his office of teacher, whether he was not the carpenter of Nazareth? This mode of reviling persons of mind and high station, by allusion to their inglorious origin, has been common in all ages and amongst all nations. Necessarily as both Joseph and Mary must have been convinced of the divine nature of the Saviour of the world, we cannot for a moment believe that they would have considered any other than a life of contemplation and mental abstraction suited to his views and sacred character.

The Christian Era, according to the vulgar computation, commenced when our Lord was in his sixth year, and in that which we call the year 1. Ancient history, as respects ecclesiastical matters, ends at this epocha; but as regards secular affairs, it is continued 476 years farther, until the fall of the Roman empire, and the consequent extinction of polite learning.

The Secular Games, a Roman centenary festival of three days, was celebrated with great pomp by Augustus in 17. Its object was to call down a blessing from heaven upon the nation; after invitations had been duly sent to the utmost provinces of the empire, and all citizens capable of reach-

ing Rome had assembled in the Campus Martius, the emperor and quindecimviri, on the first night of the feast, caused three altars to be erected, which they sprinkled with the blood of three lambs, and then offered thereon a solemn sacrifice to Jupiter.

The Augustan Age. So great was the patronage bestowed on literature in the time of Augustus, that his reign has been emphatically designated *learned*, and the term Augustan has been since generally applied to such periods in the history of other nations, as have been distinguished on a similar account. Twelve of the most prominent authors of Rome in the time of Augustus are the following:—*Livy* of Padua, who has immortalized his name by a history of the Roman empire. From certain peculiarities in his style and orthography, his writing has been called *patauinity*, in allusion to his birthplace.—*Phædrus*, a Thracian slave, made free by Augustus. He is to be admired for his purity of style, wit, and neatness of expression. His fables were never published till the close of the sixteenth century.—*Virgil*, the prince of Latin poets, born near Mantua. When Augustus distributed the lands of the proscribed, he, through Mæcenas, obtained restitution. His *Bucolics*, *Georgics*, and *Æneid* remain imperishable monuments of his taste and talents.—*Horace*, the lyric poet, was honoured by the notice of Augustus; who, sitting often at table, with Virgil on one side of him and Horace on the other, would thus enjoy a double banquet.—*Propertius*, the elegiac poet, son of a Roman knight, had been proscribed on account of his attachment to Antony. Mæcenas, however, induced

Augustus to forgive and patronize him. He is elegant, but unchaste in sentiment. The heroine of his elegies, Cynthia, was a Roman lady named Hostia.—*Cornelius Nepos*, known by his elegant lives of illustrious Greek and Roman generals.—*Ovid*, the sweetest of Latin poets, gave offence to Augustus; and died in exile.—*Tibullus*, the elegiac poet and Roman knight, scorned to ask Augustus for his lands, when like Virgil deprived of them. *Catullus*, the poet, and Roman knight, who, when he had satirized Julius Cæsar was invited by that general to his table, and became his friend.—*Celsus*, the Roman physician, who wrote eight books on medicine, still read by English students. The Latin is pure, and the style often remarkably elegant.—*Mæcenas*, the immortal patron of the learned, was a Roman knight, and descended from the kings of Etruria. Augustus even acknowledged himself indebted to him for the security he enjoyed; and by his advice he assumed the title of emperor. From the encouragement which the princes of heroic and lyric poetry, Virgil and Horace, received from the favourite of Augustus, all patrons of literature have since been called Mæcænates.—*Asinius Pollio*, another patron of the learned, and consul under Augustus. It was in honour of Pollio that Virgil wrote the Eclogue, wherein he alludes to our Saviour's birth: 'While thou, Pollio, while thou art consul, the glory of our age shall make his entrance. Whatever vestiges of guilt remain, shall be done away, and release the earth from fear for ever. Be thou but propitious to the infant boy, by whom the iron age shall cease, and the golden over all the world arise!'

OTHER EMINENT PERSONS.

Phraates IV., king of Parthia, after murdering his own father to obtain the throne more speedily, forced the Romans under Marc Antony to retire with great loss. The nobles dethroned the parricide in favour of one Tiridates; but Phraates appealed to Augustus,

who agreed to support him against the usurper, on receiving his promise to deliver up the Roman ensigns taken from Crassus and Antony by the Parthians. He was thus enabled to enjoy his dignity for a time, but was at last murdered by one of his own concu-

bines, who placed her own son, Phraates, in his stead. The Roman writers regarded the Parthians as the remnant of the Persians, often calling them Medes.

Strabo, the Greek geographer, after visiting most of the nations of the known world, including Britain, wrote upon their history, antiquities, and customs. His Greek is pure; and his extensive knowledge has always been the theme of wonder as well as praise.

Vitruvius, the architect, known only by his work on his own art, which he dedicated to Augustus. It is the sole

book on architecture extant written by the ancients; and is allowed, by modern men of science, to show that he was master of his profession.

Varus, a Roman proconsul, who, when in command of the armies against the Germans, killed himself upon seeing his troops destroyed by the crafty stratagems of Arminius. His head and body were sent to Rome by the barbarian chief; and so much was Augustus affected by the circumstance, that for months he would exclaim, in deep abstraction of mind, 'O Varus! restore me my legions.'

PERIOD THE SEVENTH.

From the Advent of Christ to the Fall of Rome

14 TO 476 A. D.—462 YEARS.

SECTION I.

TIBERIUS CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

14 TO 37—23 YEARS.

Tiberius, the adopted son of Augustus, obtained several victories as one of his generals, and had been rewarded with a triumph; but the emperor became suspicious of his intentions, and he was obliged to pass seven years in exile at Rhodes. The beginning of his reign promised tranquillity; but his ingratitude to his mother, Livia, through whose intrigues he was indebted for the purple, his cruelty to his wife Julia, and his murder of many senators, rendered him odious to the people. Checked in his career of violence by the mutiny of his army in Germany, he conciliated his subjects by lessening the taxes, and restraining luxury among the patricians; but when he heard Germanicus eulogized for his victories, he regarded that general as a rival, contrived his death, and sacrificed so many in his rage, that there was scarcely a family in Rome which had not to reproach him for the loss of a brother, a father, or a husband. Conscious that he had lost the affections of his people, he appointed Sejanus regent, and retiring to the island of Capræ, lost himself in the grossest sensuality. He died aged seventy-eight, leaving the throne to Caius Caligula.

CHIEF EVENTS.

THE PUBLIC MINISTRY OF CHRIST. It was in the 15th year of Tiberius that John, afterwards called the Baptist, was called by God to announce the entrance upon his holy office of the Saviour of the world. The Jewish

kingdom had been divided into four parts on Herod's death. His younger son, Herod Antipas, being now tetrarch of the portion called Galilee, and his elder son, Archelaus, ruling over that of Judæa as king. It was customary for the Romans to keep a governor in each of the principalities, with a competent force of soldiers; and Pontius Pilate was, at this juncture, governor of Judæa.

John, upon receiving his divine call, went through the country about Jordan, baptizing in that river all such as had consented to reform their vicious lives, and receive the coming Messiah. While, on one occasion, in the year 27, he was performing his sacred office, Jesus himself, now thirty years of age, presented himself for the rite; and as John was baptizing him, the heavens were opened, and the Spirit of God descended upon him in a bodily shape, like a dove, the divine voice at the same time declaring, 'Thou art my beloved Son: in thee I am well pleased.' Our Lord, as soon as he was baptized, retired to the wilderness, where, during a fast of forty days, he underwent the most powerful temptations of the Evil Spirit, without in the slightest manner yielding to any, though at last exhausted by the want of common sustenance. After his first miracle of changing water into wine at the marriage feast, his followers became numerous; and out of these he selected twelve apostles, before whom he purposed to display his divine powers in an especial manner, that they might go forth to the world, and diffuse the light of the gospel with a full belief in its truth. When he had gradually revealed to these favoured persons the grievous sufferings he was to undergo, and explained the nature of his kingdom, he thought it proper to give them a short glimpse of his glorified state in heaven: and therefore took three of them, Peter, James, and John, to a mountain, where, as he prayed, he was transfigured; that is, his countenance was altered; his face

shone as the sun, and his raiment was white as the light. Moses and Elijah, the two most distinguished prophets under the Old Testament, appeared also in glory, and conversed with him concerning his ignominious death; and while they were thus engaged, a cloud overshadowed them, and the mysterious voice again declared Jesus to be the beloved Son of God. No sooner had our Lord excited the attention of the people by his miracles, than a spirit of opposition was stirred up, which kept pace with his fame. The Pharisees endeavoured to depreciate his character by malicious reflections on the meanness of his parentage. The Scribes asked him by what authority he acted as a public instructor and reformer? The Herodians inquired of him, whether it was lawful to pay tribute to Cæsar or not? and the Sadducees proposed to him some speculative points concerning the resurrection and a future state. When he deigned to reply to their absurd cavillings, far from giving them any advantage over him, he sent them away amazed at the quickness of his invention, and confounded by the power of his arguments. When, at length, the Scribes and Pharisees had leagued together to destroy him, Judas, one of his apostles, was prevailed upon by money to betray him into their hands. Well knowing what was about to befall him, he appointed the night of his seizure for a sacred valedictory festival, which he enjoined his disciples to repeat on occasion after his death, using to them the simple and affecting injunction, 'Do this in remembrance of me!' To the Jewish officers who had entered the garden to seize him, he openly declared himself to be the Eternal I AM (whence their charge of blasphemy against him); at the hearing of which the band 'went backward, and fell to the ground,' as was their wont on hearing uttered the name of the Great Jehovah. Basely betrayed by one disciple, and deserted by the rest, he bore with meekness the insults and taunts of his infuriated enemies during

his subsequent trial ; and, when condemned to death by the Jewish tribunal on the charge of blasphemy, in that he had made himself equal with God, he resisted not, but yielded his life a willing sacrifice for the sins of his destroyers, and of the whole world. This awful event occurred six years after his entrance upon his ministry, 33. Buried by Joseph of Arimathea, a wealthy disciple, assisted by Nicodemus the converted Jewish ruler, the tomb sedulously cemented up, while a guard of Roman soldiery was set to watch lest any one should steal away the body, no deception could have been practised which would not have been speedily detected. On the third day, strict as was the guard over the sepulchre, consisting of soldiery paid by the Jewish rulers for the purpose, of a rich disciple interested in the fulfilment of Christ's prediction, and of one who had been a cavilling disputant with our Lord, the stone, amid the shock of an earthquake, was suddenly rolled away by an angelic being, and the Saviour of the world came forth and disappeared, while the astonished keepers stood trembling and amazed. His appearance on subsequent occasions to his disciples, his allowing them to feel the prints which the nails of the cross had left in his hands and feet, and the spear of the soldier in his side, and, finally, his being carried up in their sight to heaven, forty days after his resurrection from the grave, enabled his faithful followers to go forth, and fearlessly to preach the tidings of salvation to the world.

The following seven classes of miracles may be named as the principal of those performed by our Lord : He turned six vessels full of water into wine ; he fed 5000 persons at once with five loaves, and two small fishes ; and again, he fed 4000 with seven loaves, and at both times there were several baskets of fragments ; he gave sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, speech to the dumb, strength and vigour to the lame and paralytic ; he healed the leprosy, fever, dropsy,

and other distempers, by a command ; he walked on the water, and suppressed a storm at sea, by a reproof ; he delivered several persons from the possession of devils ; he raised some from the dead, namely, the ruler's daughter in the chamber ; the widow's son in the street, as he was carried to his burial ; and Lazarus, when he had been dead four days.

Of moral philosophers, without allusion to his divine character, Jesus Christ was the greatest. The heathens, and even the Jews in their latter days, had but a faint notion of the origin of evil, and the existence of a future state. Our Lord at once set in view the intricacies of the human heart, asserted its inherent proneness to evil, taught that its very thoughts must be restrained, and proved a life after death by his own resurrection. The heathen philosophy had vainly endeavoured to crush the passions ; Christ taught to *rein* them, and thus render them the sources of earthly happiness. The ancient professors of ethics shrunk from our Lord's self-denying dogmas : and the meek alone were found capable of receiving and propagating the truth.

When we mark our Lord's conduct as recorded by a few artless and humble men, we perceive every action to correspond with the attributes of a God : whether we contemplate his innate dignity, exemplified during his youth, during his ministry, and in his persecution and last sufferings ; his endeavours to benefit mankind, temporally and spiritually, by his miracles and his counsel ; his supernatural acquaintance with the human heart ; the innocence of his life ; or the *mode* in which he performed his miracles—without concealment, without evasion, without parade, and without personal gain. The *object*, too, of those miracles was invariably the good of mankind, with scarcely an injurious consequence to any other portion of the natural world. As to their *mode*, he but *spoke*, and the deaf heard, the lame walked, the blind saw, the dumb

spoke, the dead were raised, the waves of the mighty deep were stilled : like as at the creation, upon the mere uttering of that magnificently simple command, ' Let there be light ! ' there was light.

Jewish Memoranda. The twelve chosen Apostles were Peter, Andrew, James the son of Zebedee, John, Philip, Bartholomew, Thomas, Matthew, James the son of Alphaeus, Lebbeus, Thaddeus, Simon the Canaanite, and Judas Iscariot. After the crucifixion, Matthias was chosen in place of the traitor Judas. *Gospel*, or good spell, an old word for news, is a translation of evangellion, meaning, in Greek, the same thing: hence the term evangelists, or writers of the gospel. The Evangelists were four; and two of them, Mark and Luke, were not apostles. The Acts were written by St. Luke the evangelist, who was a physician. The Priests were Levites of the house of Aaron: the Levites were subservient priests: the chief-priests were twenty-four, and the head of all was the high-priest. The Greeks were, in the Jewish nomenclature, all such as, whether Greeks, Romans, or Syrians, worshipped Jupiter, &c., because their nation was the great encourager of such rites. The Nazarines were Jews converted to Christianity. The Nazarites were those who had taken a vow of sanctity. The Sanhedrim was the great council of seventy elders, selected as the most esteemed persons of the Jewish tribes. Gentiles were all who were not Jews, whatever their creed. Proselytes of the Covenant were those Gentiles who received the law of Moses: Proselytes of the Gate those Gentiles who worshipped the true God, but received not the law of Moses, and were consequently only allowed to enter the outer court of the temple. Phylacteries were broad pieces of parchment worn on the breast, having holy texts written on them. The Four Hills of Jerusalem were Sion, Moriah, Olivet, and Calvary. The Sabbatical Year was every seventh, when the people rested from

husbandry; in that of Jubilee, every fiftieth, all lands were returned to their owners, and all slaves set at liberty. St. Stephen was the first martyr for Christianity; St. Paul the great apostle of the Gentiles; St. John the evangelist our Lord's favourite disciple. The first Gentile Church, wherein the followers of our Lord were first called Christians, was at Antioch; and the seven churches of Asia were Ephesus, Smyrna, Pergamus, Thyatira, Sardis, Philadelphia, and Laodicea. Crucifixion obtained amongst the Egyptians, Persians, Greeks, and Carthaginians; but especially amongst the Romans. Scourging was customary before it, according to Livy. Our Lord bore his cross in conformity with the Roman practice; that is, the cross piece of wood, called *furca*, to which the body was nailed, but not the pole or tree. Hence the word *furcifer* (culprit). With regard to the inscription, it was customary, on extraordinary occasions, to put a writing over the head, declaring the crime of the sufferer, or else to make the malefactor carry the inscription on a pole. That over our Lord accurately told what Pilate, when he wrote it, did not believe, viz., that Jesus was the lineal descendant of David, and rightful heir of the thrones of both Judah and Israel. The darkness which prevailed while Christ was on the cross was evidently preternatural: the moon was then at the full; and an eclipse of the sun can happen only at the new moon. Pilate was recalled to Rome seven years after his unjust acquiescence with the wish of the blind people under his dominion, and there destroyed himself.

Death of Sejanus. This son of a Roman knight was admitted to extraordinary intimacy by Tiberius, who even put to death several of his own children at his suggestion, and amongst them, Drusus, the general who had advanced the Roman power by his conquests in Pannonia. The emperor at length gave the reins of government into his hands, that he might de-

we himself to indolence at Capræ; in prison by strangulation, his body being afterwards dragged by ropes through the streets, and thrown into the Tiber.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. John the Baptist, the forerunner of Christ, was son of Zacharias, a priest of the temple, and Elizabeth; and born six months before our Saviour, according to divine announcement. After living in the desert, where his food was locusts and wild honey, and his clothing camels' hair, he began to preach repentance of sins, and to baptize in Jordan, warning the Jews not to trust for salvation in being children of Abraham. Herod Antipas himself received his instructions for some time with pleasure; but when the Baptist reproved him for marrying his brother's widow, that queen urged her daughter, when she had pleased the king with her dancing, to demand the head of the already captive John, 29.

Germanicus, nephew of Tiberius, would have been sovereign in his room, had he not refused the offer of his soldiers. He took the command

of the army in Germany, and afterwards of that in the east; but Tiberius caused him to be poisoned near Antioch; and his death was greatly lamented by the Romans.

Archelaus, king of Cappadocia, a tributary of Rome, was sent for by Tiberius, on account of an alleged breach of alliance. Archelaus, who had reigned fifty years over his people, and was greatly beloved for his uprightness, so deeply felt this harsh proceeding, that he died of grief in prison at Rome, and his country was made a province of the empire. Many of the maxims of this philosophical king have been recorded; and we may judge somewhat of his character from his reply to the court barber, when attending upon him for the first time. 'How,' said the artist, 'would it please your majesty that I should cut your hair?' 'Silently,' replied the monarch.

SECTION II.

CALIGULA CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

37 TO 41—4 YEARS.

Caligula was the son of Germanicus. On his accession, exiles were recalled, taxes remitted, profligates dismissed, and prosperity appeared in every department of the state: but the face of affairs was soon lamentably changed. Ordering the statues of all great men to be removed, Caligula built a temple to himself, and commanded his own bust to be placed on the figures of the gods. We cannot doubt of his insanity when we read that he walked in public indecently dressed, authorized sensuality, put people to death for mere amusement, starved the city by buying up the corn, fed wild beasts with human victims, made his horse high-priest and consul, and commenced a bridge across the Mediterranean. He wished the Romans had but one head, that he might strike it off at a blow; and endeavoured to get together all the copies of Homer's and Virgil's poems to see them blaze. The tyrant fell by the hand of his servant Chæreas.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Publication of St. Matthew's Gospel, 38, at Jerusalem. Matthew was originally a publican, and collected the tax paid to the Romans on goods that crossed the sea of Galilee. While employed at the receipt of custom, he was an eyewitness of our Saviour's miracles, and became, during his whole ministry, the familiar attendant on his person. He wrote originally in Hebrew for the use of the Jewish converts; and when that work had been purposely destroyed by the enemies of Christianity, he composed a second narrative in Greek, which is that we now have.

EMINENT PERSON.

Philo-Judæas (or the Jew) was sent ambassador to Caligula by his nation; but as that emperor required the Jews to put his statue in their temple, Philo returned unsuccessful, and published a very entertaining account of his visit. He has been called the Jewish Plato, from his happiness of expression and pleasing variety: and the book he wrote on the sufferings of his nation was read with unbounded applause even at Rome, and placed in the public library there.

SECTION III.

CLAUDIUS CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

41 TO 54—13 YEARS.

Claudius, grandson of Livia, the wife of Augustus, endeavoured to make the people forget Caligula, by turning their attention to the improvement of the city, wherein he erected many magnificent buildings. He also made much of the conquests of his generals in Britain, and passing over to that island, 43, was received every where in triumph. A British chieftain named Caractacus, who had for nine years harassed the Romans, had just been taken prisoner, and sent off to Rome. Claudius on his return, called him before him, and was struck with the dignity and misfortunes of the captive. 'Alas!' said Caractacus, 'how is it possible that you, who are possessed of such magnificence at home, could envy me an humble cottage in Britain?' Claudius answered by ordering his bonds to be taken off, and by giving him free permission to return home. In order to raise her son Nero to the throne, Agrippina, the fourth wife of the emperor, poisoned him, by putting mushrooms amongst his food.

CHIEF EVENT.

Foundation of London. This celebrated city was founded by the Romans in the year 50, as a station for the second Legion, which had the honourable name of Augusta, a title which the infant metropolis received, and kept until the Roman departure. It was, strictly speaking, an enlargement of the Civitas Trinobantum mentioned by Cæsar, by which people (the Trinobantes) it was probably selected on account of being protected on the north by an eminence, a forest, and a morass, on the west by the deep ravine now known as the Fleet, on the east by another ravine since called Walbrook, and on the south by the Thames; thus combining all the natural defences that could be desired by an uncivilized people. We can soon see how rapidly London would become a place of commerce; its proximity to the sea being

sufficient to afford the full advantage of the tide, whilst its distance from it was great enough to furnish a perfect security against the sudden attack of a naval force. The name Londinium is, according to the most prevailing opinion, a latinization of the British compound *lyn-dyn*, the town on the lake: the vast

estuary formed by the Thames at that time, being a peculiarity attached to no other British town. The population of this extraordinary city, now the richest and largest in the world, is one million and a half, according to the census of 1831.

SECTION IV.

NERO CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

54 TO 68—14 YEARS.

Nero, grandson of Germanicus, began his reign with acts of kindness; and when asked to sign his name to a list of condemned criminals, exclaimed, 'I wish I could not write!' Such fair displays, however, were soon discovered to be artificial; and having murdered his own mother, he sacrificed to his fury all who, like her, obstructed his career of dissipation and tyranny. He would mix in the lowest scenes of debauchery; appeared on the stage as an actor; killed his wife, the beautiful Poppæa, by a blow; caused Rome to be set on fire to imitate the burning of Troy; and amidst the lamentations of mothers, whose children had perished in the flames, the groans of the dying, and the fall of ponderous buildings, he sang, mounted on a tower, the downfall of Priam. His profusion at length roused the indignation of the people; and Piso conspired against the madman. The plot was detected, and all concerned in it put to death; but Galba, in a similar attempt, met with the approbation of the senate, and Nero, to save himself from an ignominious death, destroyed himself in his thirty-second year. This emperor grievously persecuted the Christians.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Boadicea's Seizure of London. Upon the death of her husband, this heroic queen of the Iceni, a British tribe, had been permitted to retain one moiety of his dominions by the Romans; but on their demanding the whole, she attacked London, reduced it to ashes, and put 70,000 Romans to the sword, 61. Paulinus, the Roman general, soon after gave her battle; and finding no hope of escape, she poisoned herself.

St. Mark's Gospel published. 63. Mark's Hebrew name was John, and his mother was a pious woman at Jerusalem, at whose house the apostles often assembled. His gospel was written at Rome, in Greek, and was intended for the gentile converts; it

records the same miracles and actions as that of St. Matthew, but with additions of very considerable import.

The first Christian Persecution. There were ten great assaults made by the Romans upon the church of Christ during its infancy. The first occurred 64, authorized by Nero, and the last by Dioclesian, 303. The Christians were, on the first occasion, accused of having set the city on fire: and a general massacre being ordered by the emperor, some were sewn up in the skins of wild beasts, and worried to death by dogs; others committed in waxed dresses to the flames; and thousands thrown headlong into the Tiber.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Paul (originally Saul) the great apostle of the Gentiles, was born at Tarsus. Brought up a Pharisee, he imbibed a violent hatred against the Christians; and when Stephen was stoned, held the raiment of his murderers, and then set out for Damascus, to imprison the disciples. On his way thither, however, a voice from heaven converted him to the true faith. His support of the gospel was now as fervent as his enmity towards it had formerly been. He made converts, wrote persuasive epistles to distant churches, sent out fellow-labourers, and exercised all the apostolic duties. *St. Paul* rather than *St. Peter* ought perhaps to be considered as the first bishop of Rome; for there he dwelt in his own hired house two whole years, and there brought thousands into the way of truth, before the arrival of *St. Peter*. At the end of two years, *St. Paul*, who had been sent prisoner to Rome, was acquitted and discharged. He, however, returned to Rome, and was beheaded at Aquæ Salvæ for converting to Christianity some of Nero's household.

St. Peter, called the chief of the apostles, from our Lord's promised delivery of the keys of heaven to him, was ardent in his attachment to his master, even to the drawing of his sword in his defence; but denied him when he saw him tried as a malefactor. After the ascension, however, he uniformly preached with boldness, and made many converts; and under the persecution of Nero, was crucified at Rome with his head downwards.

Seneca, the moral philosopher, was born in Spain, and coming to Italy, rose to fame as a pleader, and was made quæstor, and preceptor to the young Nero. On a false accusation of having joined Piso's conspiracy, that tyrant ordered his preceptor to destroy himself, which he did by first opening the veins in different parts of his body, and then entering a warm bath, to hasten his dissolution. The fact of so distinguished a philosopher having thus

shown a fear of death—one who had so often extolled the contempt of it to a degree that constituted suicide a virtue—occasioned much scandal; and when *Petronius Arbiter*, the consul, a mere man of pleasure and of the world, was seen soon after, under the same circumstances, to protract his sufferings that he might converse longer with his friends, it was observed that *Seneca* preached, and *Petronius* proved, what philosophy could do. The extant writings of *Seneca* form a valuable compendium of heathen morality.

Persius, the Roman satiric poet, was of an equestrian family. He was an amiable man, and abhorred the vices which he scourged. His satires are six; and though often obscure, they contain many brilliant passages.

Lucan, the poet, early left Spain for Rome. Foolishly contending in poetry with Nero, the emperor never forgave him; and upon his joining Piso's conspiracy, he was ordered, like *Seneca*, to put himself to death. Nothing but his *Pharsalia* remains, on the wars of Cæsar and Pompey; and though not equal to the epic of *Homer* or *Virgil*, it is a fine production.

Arætaeus of Cappadocia, a distinguished pathologist, known by the remnants of his lively and elegant works in Ionic Greek, is supposed to have resided in Italy. He is admitted to have surpassed even *Hippocrates* in his description of diseases; and regarding the experience of the medical practitioner in a higher light than scholastic degrees, he held that the constant observer would, as it were, grow a physician. He alludes to modes of treatment also, which have been considered modern discoveries. Thus in employing emetics, he speaks of the benefit derived to the stomach from the shock which vomiting produces; alludes to the practice of opening a vein at the back of the hand; of cupping; and of the administering scarcely any medicines in acute, and only alterative ones in chronic maladies.

SECTION V.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE ROMAN EMPIRE BETWEEN GALBA,
OTHO, AND VITELLIUS,*Usually called the Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Cæsars.*

68 TO 69—1 YEAR.

Great was the joy in Rome when it was announced that Nero was no more. The people ran into the streets to congratulate each other, and dressed themselves in the manner of slaves who had been set free. *Galba*, the favourite of the soldiers, at that moment in Spain, was declared emperor, at seventy-two; but he had scarcely been seated on the throne, when he displayed a corruption of principle which violently irritated the citizens against him. The goods of all parties were seized by his favourites, and sold; the crime of murder was blotted out; and impunity as respected any offence, however vile, was to be purchased by money. The soldiers, when they found that *Galba* could not pay them the large sums he had promised them, being urged on by *Otho*, rode into the Forum, where the emperor was on horseback, and cut off his head, 69, seven months after his accession. *Otho* being hereupon acknowledged sovereign, endeavoured to conciliate the people by acts of clemency and justice; but *Vitellius*, who was with the army in Germany, induced the soldiers to proclaim him emperor. *Otho* instantly left Rome to oppose him, sending forward his generals, *Suetonius* and *Celsus*, to give him battle; but in the final contest of *Bebriacum* all his hopes were overthrown. He would not believe the report of a soldier respecting the defeat of his troops; but when he saw the man throw himself upon his sword, he retired to his chamber and stabbed himself, having possessed the throne but four months. *Vitellius* had been the favourite of *Caligula* for his skill in driving a chariot, that of *Claudius* for his gaming propensities, and that of *Nero* for having persuaded the madman his voice was divine. No sooner had he gained the victory at *Bebriacum*, than, to attach his chief officers, he made luxurious banqueting the business of his life: four and even five times a day sitting down to a public repast. The deserts of *Libya*, the shores of *Spain*, the waters of the *Carpathian*, even remote *Britain* itself, were searched to supply his voluptuous table. The commonalty, ever disposed to investigate and find fault with the habits of their betters, soon found cause to quarrel with *Vitellius*. The army was appealed to as the readiest means of staying a course which, if persisted in, would drain the utmost resources of the empire. *Vespasian* was proclaimed forthwith; and *Vitellius*, who had concealed himself under the bed of the porter of his palace, was dragged thence naked into the street, and murdered by the mob.

SECTION VI.

VESPASIAN CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

69 TO 79—10 YEARS.

Vespasian, of an obscure family, rose to distinction in the army, and when sent against *Palestine* as a general, laid siege to *Jerusalem*. This great work, however, was perfected by *Titus*, his son, as the death of *Vitellius* caused his

recal to Rome. He repaired the public buildings of the capitol, made the roads more spacious and convenient, and was a patron of the learned ; giving annually a large sum from the public treasury to professors of the various sciences. He was clement, and an enemy to flattery, despised informers, and constantly forgave conspirators against his person. Having made tributary the Alans, a barbarous tribe on the river Tanais, he set about a reform of the colonies of the empire, and took an especial interest in the affairs of Britain. While in Campania, being then seventy, he was seized with a mortal illness, and desired to be moved to Rome. This, however, could not be effected ; and when he found his end approaching, he rose from his couch, and calmly observing ‘ that it became a ruler to die on his feet,’ expired in the arms of his attendants, without a groan.

CHIEF EVENT.

The Fall of Jerusalem, predicted by our Lord, took place, 70. The Jews had attempted to throw off the Roman yoke, when Titus, son of Vespasian, entered Syria with a large army, and after his father had commenced the siege, took Jerusalem. No less than 1,400,000 fell in this contest ; and so great was the distress of the besieged, that a mother eat her child to avoid starvation. The temple was demolished, and the city exterminated by fire. Not only the historian

Josephus, but Agrippa II., the last king of the Jews, accompanied Titus in his march against his own city, having been before dethroned by Claudius, and carried to Rome. Thus, after years of Roman oppression, the Jews became what they still remain, — a wandering people, — without leader, without country, and without union ; and corrupted as was their faith at the period of their dispersion, it is now still more mingled and debased with absurd practices and traditions.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Josephus, the Jewish historian, surrendered to Vespasian during the Judæan war, after holding out a small fortress against the Romans. He accompanied Titus when he besieged Jerusalem ; and going with him to Rome, was made a citizen. There he wrote his history of the wars of the Jews, in

Syriac and Greek ; wherein, although he does not acknowledge our Lord’s divinity, he speaks of him favourably.

Quintus Curtius, made proconsul of Africa by Vespasian, was author of a history of Alexander the Great, pure and elegant in style, though inaccurate in historical facts, geography, and dates.

SECTION VII.

TITUS CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

79 TO 81—2 YEARS.

Titus succeeded his father Vespasian ; and on being invested with the purple, divorced his Jewish wife Berenice, sister of Agrippa, the last Jewish king ; his attachment to whom had given the Romans great offence. This conduct, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the title of ‘ the delight of mankind.’ He reformed judicial proceedings, added to the buildings of the city, erected baths of great magnificence, and established public spectacles for the amusement of the common people. To benefit his subjects appeared the chief study of Titus ; and it was upon reflecting that he had performed no useful action during one whole day that he exclaimed, *Perdidi diem !* (I have lost

day!)—memorable words, which the Christian wayfarer need not blush to remember. He pardoned two senators who had plotted against his life; and when many towns were destroyed by the eruption of Vesuvius, his attention to his destitute subjects was that of a tender parent. The Romans, however, did not long enjoy the blessing of so benevolent a prince: he was seized suddenly with a fever, and having been put, by the advice of his brother Domitian, into a new bath, death ensued.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Destruction of Pompeii. This city, near Naples, was covered by an eruption of matter from Vesuvius, 79, at the same time that Herculaneum, in its neighbourhood, was overwhelmed. The former having suffered rather from loose ashes than boiling lava, has been cleared to a great extent in recent years; and the fact of an ancient Roman town being brought to light uninjured, save as regards the roofs of buildings, may be registered among the remarkable events of the eighteenth century. Pompeii, as well as Herculaneum, had Hercules for its founder; and received its name from the pompa, or procession of the heads of Geryon, which were annually paraded through its streets.

Agricola in Britain. Agricola, the father-in-law of the historian Tacitus, in the year 80, as governor of Britain, completed the work which Cæsar had begun, and wholly subjugated the country. He first discovered it to be an island, and built a line of forts between the rivers Clyde and Forth, to keep out the Picts and Scots, whom the Roman general, Galgacus, had recently defeated on the Grampian hills. Domitian, when he became emperor, alarmed at the reports he received of the equity and success of his lieutenant, ordered him home, and directed him to enter Rome by night, that he might not receive a triumph.

EMINENT PERSON.

Pliny the Elder fell a sacrifice in the eruption which covered Pompeii. Being in command of the Roman fleet at Misenum, he was astonished at perceiving a cloud of dust and ashes suddenly darken the atmosphere; and setting sail, found Vesuvius had burst forth. Anxious to view a spec-

tacle which had not been displayed in the memory of man, he approached the mountain too closely, and was suffocated by the sulphureous vapours. His natural history, though inelegant, is yet, as a storehouse of information swept from all sources, a very curious and valuable work.

SECTION VIII.

DOMITIAN CÆSAR, EMPEROR OF ROME.

81 TO 96—15 YEARS.

Domitian, the brother of Titus, affected to be so tender in disposition at the opening of his reign, that he would not permit oxen to be sacrificed to the gods. He presided in the courts of justice to insure impartial decisions, patronized learning, and showed a desire to benefit his people. But the mask was soon laid aside, and, like Nero, he must be regarded henceforth as insane. He grievously persecuted the Christians; commanded himself to be addressed as

a god; passed days together in catching flies; and once assembled the august senate to ask them how a turbot should be dressed. He was assassinated by Stephanus, one of his courtiers, at the age of forty-five.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Capitoline Games were instituted by Domitian at Rome, 86, with sacrifices to Jupiter. in commemoration of the saving of the capitol at the time of the Gallic invasion. This celebrated citadel and temple, the bulwark of Rome, whose roofs were of gold, and whose treasures of vessels and shields were immense, was rebuilt by Domitian, after its destruction by fire; and he rendered it still more magnificent than before. The word capitol has often been emphatically

used to denote the whole city of Rome.

Second Christian Persecution began 93; and Domitian was glad to involve several senators, that he might seize their estates. Simeon, bishop of Jerusalem, was crucified; St. John the evangelist, boiled in oil; Dionysius the Areopagite, bishop of Athens, was beheaded; and Timothy, the favourite of St. Paul, and bishop of Ephesus, while reproving the Greeks for celebrating a heathen feast, was beaten to death with clubs.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. John the Evangelist was banished by Domitian to Patmos, one of the Cyclades, to dig in the mines, after having been thrown into a caldron of boiling oil without receiving injury. He wrote his Revelation in Patmos, but his Gospel at Ephesus, 97; the latter of which he composed to prove our Lord's divinity, which the Gnostics had called in question. John was eminently the object of our Lord's regard and confidence, and the disciple whom he loved. More Hebrew phrases and idioms, arising from his Hebrew extraction, are found in his Greek than in that of the other evangelists. He died, aged ninety, at Ephesus.

Epictetus, the stoic philosopher, was born in Asia Minor; and going early in life to Rome, was slave to Nero's freedman, Epaphroditus. When Domitian published his edict for the departure of all philosophers from Rome, he retired to Nicopolis, in Epirus, where he died. He made wisdom to consist in continence and patience; and his constant precept was 'bear and forbear.' His doctrine was divested of many of the stoic extravagances: he maintained the immortality of the soul; taught submission to the will of

Providence in all events; and strongly opposed the right of man to commit suicide. The chief remains of Epictetus are to be found in his *Enchiridion* and *Dissertations*, published by Arrian, his disciple. His memory was so highly prized, that the few articles of furniture he possessed were purchased with avidity; the earthen lamp by which he studied selling for a sum equal to 90*l.* sterling.

Quintilian, the rhetorician, left his native Spain for Rome, and was appointed preceptor to the two princes whom Domitian appointed his successors. His *Institutions* is the most perfect system of oratory extant; in the twelve books of which he plans the education of an orator from the cradle.

Martial, the epigrammatist, was born in Spain, and made tribune by Domitian; but as Trajan took little notice of him, he returned to his native land, and passed the remainder of his life in poverty, which was occasionally alleviated by the bounty of Pliny the younger. His epigrams are a compound of wit, talent, and indelicacy, and have been the foundation of many similar productions.

SECTION IX.

NERVA, EMPEROR OF ROME.

96 TO 98—2 YEARS.

Nerva, by birth a Spaniard, and of an illustrious family, was raised by the army to the throne, on the death of the last of the Cæsars. He was a prince of moderation and virtue; and having made a solemn declaration that no senator should suffer death during his reign, respected his law even when two patrician dignity had conspired against his life. Finding the cares of government too great for the infirmities of his age, he applied to *Ulpian* *Trajan*, governor of the German provinces, to supply his place, and retired to private life, 98.

EMINENT PERSON.

<p><i>Clemens Romanus</i>, the friend and fellow-traveller of St. Paul, who wrote an epistle to the Corinthians in Latin, to quiet some disturbances amongst</p>	<p>them, and settle their faith. It is yet extant, and next to holy writ, is esteemed one of the most valuable ecclesiastical relics.</p>
--	---

SECTION X.

THE REIGN OF TRAJAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

98 TO 117—19 YEARS.

Trajan. No monarch ever succeeded to a throne with greater rejoicings on the part of his people than *Trajan*. The Dacians claiming from Rome a tribute which the cowardice of *Domitian* had offered, he headed the army; and having gained a signal victory over *Decebalus*, their general, made *Dacia* (comprehending the modern Hungary, Walachia, and Moldavia) a Roman province, 105. He next attacked the Parthians, and seizing all Assyria, extended his conquests even to India. While at Antioch he had a narrow escape from death during the earthquake which destroyed the city; and on his return from this expedition he was seized with illness at *Selinus*, and died there, aged sixty-four. The column of *Trajan*, erected a few years before his death, is still standing at Rome; and the empire was at its greatest extent during his reign. *Trajan* persecuted the Christians; and put to death 200,000 Jews of *Cyrene*, who had risen upon their Roman masters in Egypt and Cyprus.

CHIEF EVENTS.

<p><i>The Jewish Talmud compiled</i>. In the year 100, the Rabbi, <i>Judah Hak-kadesh</i>, collecting together all the traditional laws which, it was pretended, God had delivered to Moses, formed the <i>Mishnah</i> or secondary law; and this <i>Mishnah</i>, together with the annotations of various rabbins, is now called the <i>Talmud</i>, and possesses greater authority in respect to ceremonies than even the written law of Moses. It is</p>	<p>in seven folio volumes; and every rabbi, or doctor of law, is required to be skilled in interpreting the same. The <i>Targums</i> were those translations of the Hebrew scriptures into Chaldean, which were made for the Jews who had forgotten their own language by their long residence in Chaldaea. A portion of the books of <i>Daniel</i> and <i>Ezra</i>, and one verse in <i>Jeremiah</i> (cap. x., v. 11), have no Hebrew original,</p>
---	--

but are in Chaldee, which, after all, was but a dialect of the Hebrew.

The Third Christian Persecution began 108, and amongst the sufferers were Symphorosa, a widow, who after being scourged, was hung in the temple of Hercules by the hair of her head, and then thrown with a stone about her neck into the Tiber, her seven sons also being put to death; Phocas, bishop of Pontus, who for refusing to sacrifice to Neptune, was first cast into a lime-kiln, and then into a scalding bath; and Ignatius, bishop of Antioch, whom, when an infant, Christ is said to have taken in his arms, and showed to his disciples,

as one that would be a pattern of humility and innocence: he was now burned with hot pincers, and thrown to wild beasts. Pliny the younger had influence enough over Trajan to stay these horrors; but Adrian continued the persecution, until several heathen philosophers induced him to abstain from further severity.

Armenia added to Rome. This state, close to Media, was conquered 114; and though it does not figure in history, being generally a tributary power, it had a succession of kings, who were acknowledged even by their conquerors. Armenius, one of the Argonauts, was founder of the kingdom.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Pliny the Younger, the orator, published his uncle's Natural History. This author's Letters are all that remain of his productions; they are in a pure and elegant diction, and display the goodness of his heart. He was the firm advocate of the Christians, and nobly portioned the daughter of his preceptor, Quintilian, with 50,000 sesterces (3000*l.*), on her marriage. He never would take fees as an advocate; preferring to defend the poor and helpless.

Tacitus, the historian and consul, whose attachment to the younger Pliny was proverbial: they were seldom separate. As an historian, he is to be admired for precision and dignity of narration; his main fault is obscurity, through conciseness. Only sixteen of his annals, and five of the books of his history of the Roman emperors, remain.

Plutarch was born in Chæroneæ; and after visiting Greece and Egypt, settled at Rome. Trajan made him consul, and governor of Illyricum; but on the death of his patron he retired to his native city, and devoted

his days to the records which have immortalized his name. His lives of illustrious men are to be admired on many accounts, though devoid of elegance and purity of style; and it has been observed, that were a man of true taste and judgment asked, what book of the profane compositions of antiquity he would save from destruction? he would reply, 'The Lives of Plutarch.' Inclined as we are ourselves to allow this excellent historian his full meed of praise, we should certainly prefer rescuing from oblivion the *Enchiridion* of Epictetus, especially if accompanied by the commentary of Simplicius.

Juvenal, the satirist, and last poet of Rome, was an aged man when he sent forth his works to the world. His tenth satire has been regarded by scholars in all ages; and, as a moral composition, so great was its celebrity once, that bishop Burnet recommended it to the serious perusal and practice of the divines of his diocese, as the best commonplace book for sermons, and the storehouse of moral virtues.

SECTION XI.

ADRIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

117 TO 138—21 YEARS.

Adrian, the adopted son of Trajan, began his reign by remitting all arrears due to the treasury; and having subdued insurrections in Egypt and Palestine, resolved on visiting the provinces. He reached Britain in 120, and caused a wall, eighty miles long, much of which still remains, to be built from the Tyne to Solway Firth, to keep out the Caledonians. He nearly restored Jerusalem; but the Jews offending him by their revolt under Barchochebas, because he had erected a temple to Jupiter on mount Calvary, and placed a sculptured hog over the gate, he sacrificed 100,000 people to his fury, and turned as many more out of Judæa. He died at Baiæ, of dropsy; after endeavouring to destroy himself on account of his sufferings. He wrote some poetry, fragments of which are still extant, especially the lines addressed to his departing spirit, so often translated.

CHIEF EVENT.

Spread of the Gnostics. This most ancient of Christian sects, like the worm in the bud, had an existence in the apostles' time; but in the reign of Adrian it became formidable. The doctrine of its followers was a strange mixture of the law and the gospel. They insisted on a mystical interpretation of the plainest parts of scripture; spoke of emanations of the spirit, called æons; and affirming that this world was the work of a malignant author, who consulted not the advantage of men but his own authority, declared all matter to originate in evil; they therefore treated the body with contempt, discouraged marriage, and rejected the resurrection. To them the apostle alluded, when he spoke of 'the vain philosophy which would deceive.'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Apicius. There were three gluttons of this name, the last of whom died at Rome, 117. Cælius Apicius wrote a book on the pleasures of eating which is still in existence; and hanged himself when he had wasted his estate in riotous living.

Suetonius, secretary to Adrian, wrote a history of the Roman kings, an impartial book, of which only that part containing the lives of the twelve Cæsars remains.

Ptolemy, author of the system of the world, was born at Alexandria, and

received the names of most wise, and most divine from the Greeks. In his system, he places the earth in the centre of the universe, instead of the sun; a doctrine universally believed until confuted by Copernicus.

Florus, the Roman historian, whose annals are rather a panegyric of certain Romans, than a correct recital of their history.

Ælian, a Roman sophist, of Præneste, who wrote in Greek a history of animals; in which he relates many incredible stories.

SECTION XII.

ANTONINUS PIUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

138 TO 161—23 YEARS.

Antoninus Pius, the adopted son of *Adrian*, derives no small portion of his lustre from the dark vices of his predecessors. The Romans declared they had a god amongst them. Such was his liberality, that he parted with his private fortune to relieve the necessitous, declaring that all he possessed belonged to the public. He would not travel, that he might save the money of the state ; which he employed in putting down insurrections in Dacia and Britain. Ambassadors were sent to him from the remote parts of India, offering him the alliance of their princes. He protected the Christians, declaring that all who dared to disturb them should undergo the punishment given by his predecessors to the accused. In the time of a famine at Rome, he maintained vast numbers ; when his subjects endeavoured to inflame him with a passion for military glory, he answered, that he more desired the preservation of one subject, than the destruction of a thousand enemies ; he was also an eminent patron of learned men, drawing them to his court from all parts of the world. Whilst thus employed in rendering mankind happy, he was seized with a fever, and died aged seventy-four.

EMINENT PERSON.

<p><i>Apollonius</i>, a stoic philosopher of Chalcis, was sent for by Antoninus to instruct his adopted son, Marcus. When he came to Rome, he refused to go to the palace ; observing, ‘that the master ought not to wait upon his</p>	<p>pupil, but the pupil upon him.’ The emperor thereupon sent Marcus to the philosopher, observing, with a smile, ‘Then it is easier for Apollonius to come from Chalcis to Rome, than to cross Rome to the palace.’</p>
--	--

SECTION XIII.

MARCUS AURELIUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

161 TO 180—19 YEARS.

Marcus Aurelius, the adopted son of *Pius*, displayed many of the virtues of his predecessor ; but his cruelty to the Christians is a grievous stain upon his character. Insurrections amongst the Quadi, Parthians, and Marcomanni were put down by his spirited conduct ; but in his march against the Scythians, he was seized with the plague at Vienna, and died there, aged sixty. Aurelius was a stoic, and made it a law to himself to be disturbed by nothing. His work in Greek having the title ‘*On Himself*,’ is still extant.—*Verus*, a man of dissipated character, ruled some time, in conjunction with Aurelius, but was espised by the people, who rejoiced when they heard of his death.

CHIEF EVENTS.

<p><i>The Fourth Persecution</i> began 162 ; and amongst the sufferers were Polycarp, bishop of Smyrna, and Justin Martyr, a Greek father of the church. The torments were various. The mar-</p>	<p>tyrs of Lyons were made to sit in red-hot iron chairs, until their flesh boiled ; some were sewn up in nets, and cast to wild bulls ; and the carcasses of those who died in prison before the</p>
--	---

time of execution, were thrown to dogs to be devoured.

A Plague, 178, similar in character to the disorder usually so denominated

in modern times, raged throughout the Roman state, and its provinces, not omitting Britain.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Galen, the great physician, was born at Pergamus; and after visiting Egypt and Greece, came to Rome, where he was patronized by Aurelius. To the application of Galen and Hippocrates, the moderns are indebted for the fundamental portion of their medical science. Pioneers as they were, they cleared the way for modern experiment and improvement; and little was added to their original stock of

information until during the latter part of the last century.

Lucian, bred a sculptor, quitted his native place, Samosata, for Rome. Aurelius made him register to the Roman governor of Egypt, in which country he was torn to pieces by dogs, in his ninetyeth year. His works consist chiefly of dialogues; and were it not for their contempt of religion, might be admired for their wit and eloquence.

SECTION XIV.

COMMODUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

180 TO 192—12 YEARS.

Commodus, son of Aurelius, must be ranked amongst the insane rulers of Rome. Desirous of being thought a second Hercules, he paraded the streets of the city in a lion's skin, armed with a club; fought nakedly with the gladiators; contended with wild beasts in the amphitheatre; and demanded divine honours from the senate. A revolt took place in Gaul and Spain under Maternus, a common soldier, 187, which had in view the murder of the emperor; but the head of the insurrection having arrived clandestinely in Rome, was betrayed by his own party, and executed. In the same year broke out a second plague, which raged for three years throughout Italy, frequently carrying off 2000 persons in a day; and in 188, succeeded a fire in the capitol, kindled by lightning, which consumed that fortress, the public library, and other important edifices. An insurrection occasioned by the burying up of the corn by Cleander had scarcely been suppressed, when Martia, a woman of ill character, poisoned the emperor in the thirty-first year of his age.

EMINENT PERSON.

Diogenes Laertius, the Epicurean philosopher of Cilicia, who wrote the lives of the philosophers; a work replete

with anecdote, and containing a fair statement of the opinions of each sect.

SECTION XV.

PERTINAX AND SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS, EMPERORS OF ROME.

192 TO 211—19 YEARS.

Pertinax was chosen by universal consent to succeed Commodus. He was a manumitted slave, and had been engaged in the mean employment of a char-

coal-burner ; but entering the army, he rose by his valour, and was made consul by Aurelius. On his accession, he put to sale the extravagant collection of property belonging to Commodus, and reduced the taxes ; but on endeavouring to restrain the licentiousness of the pretorian guard his life fell a sacrifice, 193. The crown was now offered for money to Didius Julianus, a lawyer, who had been consul ; but the sum, which was to complete the purchase, not having been paid to the soldiery at the appointed time, Julianus was beheaded, and *Severus* declared emperor, 194. He was of noble origin, and was at the head of an army in Illyricum when he heard of the murder of Pertinax ; to avenge whose death he declared, on entering Rome, he was then alone come. He took Albinus as a partner in the throne ; and when Niger soon after proclaimed himself emperor, he sent a force against him, which defeated and killed him at Issus, and went himself against Byzantium, suppressing the revolt which had taken place there. Upon his return to Rome, he commenced a dispute with his colleague, which brought on open hostilities, and ended in the death of the latter in a pitched battle in Gaul. Thus placed in the situation which his ambitious spirit had panted for, *Severus* marched eastward again ; and Seleucia, Babylon, and Parthia, became submissive to him. He next visited Egypt ; and having granted that people a senate, and viewed with attention the antiquities of the country, hastened to Britain, accompanied by his sons Caracalla and Geta. Here he perceived that the Scots had made an alarming progress southward : to drive them up into their country cost him 50,000 men, and incalculable labour ; forests having to be cut down, marshes drained, and bridges formed, before any impression could be made on the enemy. When he had at length forced the invaders back, he built the famous wall, twelve feet high and eight feet broad, which still bears his name ; extending from Solway Frith to the German Ocean. He then retired to York, where the gout, exasperated by grief for the undutiful conduct of his son Caracalla, who had incited the soldiery to proclaim him emperor, carried him off.

CHIEF EVENT.

<p><i>The Fifth Persecution</i> began 201, Victor, bishop of Rome, being the first sufferer. Many of the disciples of the youthful Origen were now put to death, some by boiling pitch poured upon their heads, and others by burning ; Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, a Greek, because he disputed with Victor whether Easter should be kept at Rome in preference to other places, was, like Victor himself, marked as a champion of Christianity, and beheaded ; Perpetua, a young married</p>	<p>lady of firm piety, was thrown, denuded of her apparel, to be torn to pieces by wild beasts in the amphitheatre ; and Cecilia, the beautiful and youthful wife of Valerian, a man of rank in Rome, was placed naked in a scalding bath, and so beheaded. Notwithstanding these enormities, <i>Severus</i> is affirmed to have been attached to the Christians, but without power over his subjects to restrain their cruel proceedings.</p>
--	--

EMINENT PERSON.

<p><i>Tertullian</i>, a Carthaginian, embracing Christianity, became one of its most able advocates. His <i>Apology</i></p>	<p>and <i>Prescriptions</i> are justly admired for their eloquent and elevated style, and strength of reasoning.</p>
---	--

SECTION XVI.

CARACALLA, EMPEROR OF ROME.

211 TO 217—6 YEARS.

Caracalla is only notorious for evil doing. He killed his brother Geta, married his own mother, and because the people of Alexandria called the pair *Œdipus* and *Jocasta*, slaughtered thousands of the people of that city. He publicly burned the works of *Aristotle*, and affected to dress like *Achilles*. He was assassinated in a field by *Macrinus*. From this reign the power of Rome began to decline; the army was henceforth paramount: new aspirants to the throne of the *Cæsars* arose in every quarter, and few sovereigns were secure beyond a year or two, till the final destruction of the empire by the barbaric tribes.

EMINENT PERSON.

Ossian, a Gaelic bard, flourished 212. He was the son of *Fingal*, a Scottish chief, whom he accompanied in various military expeditions. Some epic poems and other pieces were published, in a professed English translation, 1762, by Mr. *Macpherson*; but though the celebrated Dr. *Blair* supported the authenticity of the work, the more accurately critical Dr. *Johnson* pronounced it spurious. The poems, as given in English by Mr. *Macpherson*, are in that inflated style of prose which belongs to no established order of writing. The thoughts are occasionally grand, particularly in the descriptions of natural scenery; but there is much to condemn in the incongruous nature of the incidents, and the violation of propriety as respects rhetorical figures.

SECTION XVII.

HELOGABALUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

217 TO 222—5 YEARS.

Heliogabalus. *Macrinus*, an African, and prefect of the pretorian guard, was elected emperor by the army on the death of *Caracalla*; but he had no sooner attempted to inflict punishment on some disorderly soldiers, than the whole body mutinied, and beheaded him, after a reign of two months, and placed *Heliogabalus*, a youth of fourteen, in his room. This insane boy soon displayed all the enormities of former emperors. Having chosen a senate of women, he raised his horse to the honours of consulship, and obliged his subjects to pay adoration to a block of stone, which he termed the god *Heliogabalus*. Such was the barbarity of the Romans at this period, that to this idol temples were reared, and the altars of the usual gods plundered to deck the shrine of the new divinity. The mad boy would invite the very mob to dine in his palace; and making them sit down on large disguised bellows, full of wind, they were, by their own weight, carried to the ground; when wild beasts would enter the hall, and put them to the rout. At other times he would compel certain favourites to be tied to a large wheel, by which they were whirled round, or kept suspended in the air, or dipped into a reservoir of water. The soldiers assassinated him in his nineteenth year.

CHIEF EVENT.

The Septuagint discovered. The Jews finding that the Christians valued for its accuracy, had, for a series of years, corrupted the copies that fell into their hands. The discovery, how-

ever, in 217, of the original document at Nicopolis, in Palestine, caused a general comparison to be made of the existing writings; and up to this day great care has been taken to prevent interpolations. It was the Septuagint version which was in use in the time of our Saviour; and out of it most of the quotations in the New Testament are taken.

EMINENT PERSON.

Julius Africanus, of Nicopolis, to convince the pagans of the truth of Christianity, wrote a chronology, of which fragments only remain. He induced Heliogabalus to rebuild the abbey of Nicopolis, on the site of the ancient Emmaus.

SECTION XVIII.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

222 TO 235—13 YEARS.

Alexander Severus was fourteen when called to succeed Heliogabalus. The Persians, under Artaxares, having threatened a descent upon Rome, he marched into the east and obtained a decisive victory over them. The revolt of the Germans called him again from the capitol; and when amongst his troops, he set an example of temperance and discipline which the soldiers, long accustomed to ungoverned license, were little inclined to follow. Maximin, who had a design upon the crown, encouraged the men to mutiny; and Severus, then twenty-seven, was murdered in his tent, together with his mother and several friends. Severus dedicated a portion of every day to study, and frequently attended the public schools, where he listened with pleasure to the eloquent declamations of the philosophers. He greatly improved the buildings of Rome, and was in all respects a man of superior character.

CHIEF EVENT.

Restoration of Persia. Artaxares, a common soldier of Persia, killed Artabanus, king of Parthia, 226; and adding that country to his own, erected Persia into what is termed *the middle Persian empire*, or that of the Sassanides; Persia having been only a Parthian province since the battle of Arbela. This middle empire, which hastened the fall of Rome, lasted 400 years, until its overthrow by the Saracens in the time of Omar.

SECTION XIX.

MAXIMIN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

235 TO 238—3 YEARS.

Maximin, raised to the throne by the soldiers, had been a shepherd, and was eight feet in height. The bracelets of his wife served as rings to his fingers; and such was his voracity, that he is said to have consumed forty pounds of flesh and eighteen bottles of wine daily. His strength was proportionate to his bulk: he could draw a loaded waggon unassisted, crush hard stones between his fingers, and cleave trees by the unaided force of his hand. This gigantic barbarian began his reign by putting to death 400 persons, on suspicion of their having conspired to dethrone him: and to amuse

himself with their sufferings, some of them were exposed to wild beasts, others killed by blows, some crucified, and many shut up in the bodies of animals just killed, and so suffocated. As a soldier, he acted with the same ferocity; and in an expedition to Germany devastated the country to the extent of 450 miles. The army becoming disgusted with him, proclaimed the two Gordians, father and son. Maximin marched against them with great indignation, and slew the son; whereupon the elder Gordian, eighty years of age, strangled himself at Carthage. After their fall, the senate invested twenty men with the imperial dignity; intelligence of which reaching Maximin, he howled like a wild beast, and nearly killed himself by knocking his head against the posts of his tent. His soldiers now rose upon him at Aquileia, and put him to death.

CHIEF EVENT.

The Sixth Persecution, under Maximin, began 235. Numberless Christians were slain without trial, and buried fifty and sixty at a time in pits; Hippolitus, a prelate, was tied to a wild horse, which dragged him until he expired; and Martina, a noble and beautiful virgin of Rome, was thrown into the Tiber.

SECTION XX.

GORDIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

238 TO 244—6 YEARS.

Gordian. On the murder of Maximin, the army placed Pupienus, a blacksmith's son, on the throne, conjointly with Balbinus, a provincial governor; but a private quarrel broke out between them, and was continued with so much pertinacity, that the soldiers put them to death, declaring Gordian, grandson of the aged Gordian, emperor. Though only eighteen, he displayed great spirit at the moment of his election, and led an army against Sapor, king of Persia, the son of Artaxares; who, having seized Mesopotamia, was attempting the subjugation of all the Roman Asiatic provinces. The Persians were defeated with great slaughter; and Gordian was preparing for his triumphal return home, when he was assassinated on the confines of the east, and honoured by the senate with a splendid funeral, on the spot where he died.

CHIEF EVENT.

The Conquests of Sapor. This second king of the middle Persian empire would have seized all Asia, had not Odenatus, prince of Palmyra, stopped his progress. Gordian's efforts to repel him were weak; Philip, who succeeded, bought a peace of him with money; and Valerian, a subsequent emperor, was taken prisoner by him. Odenatus, however, vigorously attacked him, cut his army to pieces, and carried off his wives and treasures. Soon after this signal disgrace, Sapor was assassinated by his own people, after a reign of thirty-two years, 273.

EMINENT PERSON.

Origen, a presbyter of Alexandria, was a powerful writer in favour of Christianity, and refuted with great ability the atheism of the epicurean philosopher, Celsus. In the persecution of Decius he was ordered to be burned, but escaped to Tyre. His Hexapia gave the hint for the compilation of our polyglot bibles: it being the Old Testament arranged in columns of different versions.

SECTION XXI.

PHILIP, EMPEROR OF ROME.

244 TO 249—5 YEARS.

Philip, an Arab by birth, and the chief conspirator against Gordian, having been appointed by the army, endeavoured by liberality and profusion to conciliate the people. Games and spectacles were encouraged, the theatre of Pompey was crowded during three days and nights, and 2000 gladiators at once bled in the circus for the amusement of a gazing populace. When the time arrived for commemorating the foundation of the empire, Philip took care to celebrate the secular games with more than the usual magnificence. His usurpation, however, was short; for when Decius declared himself emperor in Pannonia, Philip and his son were assassinated by their soldiers near Verona.

EMINENT PERSON.

<p><i>Novation</i>, a Greek philosopher, converted to Christianity, being foiled in his attempt to gain the papal chair, separated from the Romish church, and became head of the sect called, from their pretensions to superior sanctity, Catharites, or puritans. They refused the Eucharist to such as con-</p>	<p>tracted second marriages; and caused all who had been baptized into the church to undergo the rite a second time. At the same period arose the heresy of the Sabellians, their founder, Sabellinus, an Alexandrian, affirming that there is but one person in the Godhead.</p>
---	---

SECTION XXII.

DECIVS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

249 TO 251—2 YEARS.

Decius, who had been sent by Philip to appease a sedition in Mæsia, induced the soldiers as he passed through Pannonia, his native country, to declare him emperor, and march with him to dethrone their master. Acknowledged emperor upon the murder of Philip, he turned his arms against the Persians, and defeated them. At this moment he was induced to send orders to Rome to commence a violent persecution of the Christians; and then proceeded to put down the Goths in Thrace, of whom he slew 30,000 in one battle. Resolved to pursue his victory, he was, by the treachery of his own general, Gallus, led into a defile, where the king of the Goths had secret information to attack him. In this disadvantageous situation, Decius saw his son killed with an arrow, and his whole army put to flight; and, not wishing to survive this loss, he put spurs to his horse, and plunging into a quagmire, was swallowed up, insomuch that his body could never after be found.

CHIEF EVENT.

<p><i>The Seventh Persecution.</i> Philip having given the Christians great license, the heathen temples began to be forsaken, and the Christian churches thronged; whereupon Decius was urged to check the spread of principles</p>	<p>so rapidly destructive of the ancient worship. Amongst the sufferers on this occasion, Fabian, bishop of Rome, was decapitated; Julian, a native of Cilicia, being put into a leathern bag, together with a number of scorpions</p>
--	--

and serpents, was thrown into the sea ; and broiled to death ; and Peter, a young man of good family, for denying Agatha, a Sicilian lady, after being scourged, and torn with heated iron the divinity of Venus, was broken on books, was laid naked upon live coals, the wheel.

SECTION XXIII.

GALLUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

251 TO 253—2 YEARS.

Gallus having seized the throne after the murder of Decius, agreed to pay a tribute to the Goths, to prevent their incursions. Rather than rouse to war the slumbering spirit of his people, he preferred a life of indolence and sensuality ; displaying activity in nothing beyond his continuance of the persecution against the Christians. A pestilence, dreadful in its nature, overspread Europe, and greatly raged in Rome, during his reign ; and while hundreds were daily dying, the reckless emperor was informed that his general, *Æmilianus*, was in arms against him. He hurried into *Mæsia* to put him down ; but on the first assault both Gallus and his son were slain.

EMINENT PERSON.

Cyprian, bishop of Carthage, a zealous Christian, who surrendered his whole property to the poor. He wrote eighty-one letters, still extant ; and in them he conveys much valuable information respecting the discipline of the ancient church. He suffered martyrdom in the reign of *Valerian*.

SECTION XXIV.

VALERIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

253 TO 260—7 YEARS.

Valerian. *Æmilianus*, after his conquest of Gallus, expected to be invested with the purple ; but his own soldiers slew him, and *Valerian*, though seventy years of age, was acknowledged emperor. However regarded, before his elevation, for his moderation and love [of justice, he commenced his reign by a violent persecution of the Christians. He then advanced against the Goths and Scythians, and averted for a few years the entrance of those barbarians into the city ; but in his expedition against *Sapor* the Persian, he was most unfortunate. That king conquered him in *Mesopotamia* ; and when *Valerian* wished a private conference with his enemy, *Sapor* seized his person, carried him in triumph through all the cities of his kingdom, and made him his footstool whenever he mounted his horse. Finally, the barbarian put out his eyes ; and having flayed him alive, ordered salt to be thrown upon his quivering flesh.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Eighth Persecution began 257, and continued more than three years. Some of the most distinguished martyrs were *Stephen*, bishop of Rome, who was fastened by the feet to the tail of a bull ; *Bishop Cyprian*, and *Saint Lawrence*. At *Utica* 300 Christians were ordered to sacrifice to Jupiter, and threatened with suffocation in a lime-kiln, if they refused compliance. With one consent, the party leaped into the pit and expired.

First Notice of the Franks. These

ancestors of the modern French are first noticed by historians in 259, when Valerian engaged them to guard the approaches to Italy from other more barbaric tribes. They lived on the Rhine, and assumed the title of Franks or freemen, as being no longer under the Roman yoke.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Lawrence, a fervent disciple of Christianity at Rome, had been ordered to give an account to the emperor of the church-treasures; and carrying to the palace a crowd of poor, aged, and impotent Christians, he exclaimed fearlessly, 'These are our treasures!' For this contempt of authority he was seized, scourged with iron rods, set upon a wooden horse, and his limbs

having been dislocated, fastened to a large gridiron, and by a slow fire roasted to death. His constancy during these trials, throughout which he preserved a serene countenance, made many converts amongst the Roman soldiery; and the Spanish nation, at a subsequent period, selected him for its patron saint.

SECTION XXV.

GALLIENUS, EMPEROR OF ROME.

260 TO 268—8 YEARS.

Gallienus, while assisting his father Valerian, had displayed considerable talent; but his senses appear to have quitted him, when left in sole possession of the purple. He sank into gross indolence and sensuality; his palace was a scene of voluptuousness and shame; and he heard of the loss of a rich province, and of the execution of a malefactor, with equal indifference. Whilst occupied in ridiculous diversions, he was alarmed by the revolt of his troops at Milan; at the same moment, no less than thirty competitors for the throne rose in different parts of the empire. As the Goths and other barbarous tribes were with difficulty kept out of the provinces, a fair excuse was afforded to the respective governors to seize upon that portion under their command; and Gallienus, out of fear, giving way to many of their claims, the mighty Roman empire was on the eve of dissolution. To gain time, the bewildered emperor declared Odenatus his successor; and he had no sooner arrived before Milan to suppress the tumult, than he was slain by his own guard.

EMINENT PERSON.

Odenatus, prince of Palmyra, when Valerian was taken prisoner by Sapor, solicited his release by writing the conqueror a letter, and sending him presents. The pride of Sapor took fire when he perceived so petty a sovereign dare to place himself on a par with the illustrious monarch of Persia; and not only refused his request, but ordered him before him.

Odenatus disdained the summons, and, in the issue, took the queen of Persia prisoner, with a very great and rich booty. The prince was on the point of following up his victory, when he was assassinated by a relative, whom he had offended at a feast; and he died at Emessa, 267, leaving the throne to his wife, Zenobia.

SECTION XXVI.

CLAUDIUS II., EMPEROR OF ROME.

268 TO 270—2 YEARS.

Claudius II., a Dalmatian, was selected by the army, as a man capable of remedying the disorders of the state. He routed the Goths, Scythians, and Heruli, killing no less than 300,000 of those allies in a pitched battle on the banks of the Danube; and was preparing to attack Zenobia, who claimed the Roman empire in right of the promise of Gallienus, when the plague carried him off, in Pannonia.

CHIEF EVENT.

<p><i>Rise of the Manichees.</i> Manes, one of the Persian magi, declared in 269, that he had received a commission from Christ to be the Paraclete, or Comforter, that was to be sent into the world. Sapor, and his successor Hormizdas, protected him from the rage of both magi and Christians; but Varanes I. delivered him up to the magi, who put him to death. This impostor mingled the tenets of Christianity with the philosophy of his nation; asserting there were two principles, a good and an evil one, which he called light and darkness.</p>	<p>After a contest between the rulers of light and darkness, in which the latter was defeated, the prince of darkness produced the first parents of the human race. The beings coming from this stock consist of two souls, one sensitive and lustful, formed by the evil principle; the other rational and immortal, being a particle of divine light, carried away in the contest by the army of darkness, and immersed into the mass of malignant matter. Over the two princes of light and darkness was a superintendent Being, whose existence is from all eternity.</p>
---	---

SECTION XXVII.

AURELIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

270 TO 275—5 YEARS.

Aurelian. The whole of this enterprising monarch's reign was spent in repressing the irruptions of the barbarians, and in punishing the irregularities of his own subjects, especially those of the army. He had enough to keep him in activity. No sooner did he move in one direction, to put down a tribe more annoying than the rest, than another, gaining courage, entered the state in an opposite direction; and it required no small share of judgment to act with effect in a situation so critical. Having routed the Marcomanni, who had entered Italy from Germany, he directed his attention to Zenobia; and arriving at Edessa, in Syria, took that heroine prisoner. The conqueror then sacked Palmyra, her capital, and put to death Longinus, her chief political adviser. The return of Aurelian to Rome, with so illustrious a captive to grace his triumph, awed the barbaric tribes for a time; and the monarch felt himself at leisure to commence a reform of the army, and a persecution of the Christians, who were as usual accused of laying plots to disturb the state. Mnesteus, Aurelian's secretary, having been threatened by him with punishment for some trivial

offence soon after this period, persuaded certain senators that the emperor had proscribed them ; whereon a conspiracy was formed, and as the sovereign was riding near Byzantium, he was set upon and slain.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Ninth Persecution commenced 274, but was not of long continuance. The principal sufferers were Felix, bishop of Rome, and Agapetus, a young man of fortune, who had sold his estate, and given the money to the poor ; both of whom were beheaded.

The Fall of Palmyra. The moment her husband, Odenatus, was dead, Zenobia had declared herself queen of the east, affirming she was descended from the Ptolemies. Her wealth and power must have been considerable, as she not only kept the Persians at bay, but took Egypt and all Asia Minor. When Aurelian approached the plains of Syria, 273, she appeared at the head of 700,000 men, whose movements she directed with surprising skill. An imprudent evolution of her cavalry brought ruin to her cause ; and Zenobia hurried back to Palmyra, resolved on sustaining a siege. She

held out many days ; until despairing of the arrival of some auxiliary forces, she fled in the night towards the Euphrates, and was captured. She was treated with respect by Aurelian, who gave her possessions near Tibur, and married her children amongst the first Roman families. The city of the desert declined from that period ; but its ruins still remain, and are now the noblest relics of antiquity. Solomon first built Palmyra, or Tadmor (both words signifying a palm-tree), as a station between Jerusalem and India, to aid the importation of eastern luxuries : this city, however, Nebuchadnezzar destroyed. The present beautiful ruins are of Grecian architecture, and of the first three centuries after Christ. Palmyra was noted for its numerous palm-trees, and consequently for its production of dates, whence its name.

EMINENT PERSON.

Longinus, the Greek critic, first taught at Athens as a follower of Plato. His treatise on the Sublime raised him to eminence ; and Zenobia invited him to become the tutor of her sons, and consulted him on political matters. When that princess was captured by Aurelian, she attempted to avert the emperor's resentment, by imputing her resistance to the advice of her counsellors ; amongst whom Longinus, being deemed the author of her spirited reply to the Roman summons, was condemned to death 273. He calmly submitted to his fate ;

observing that the world was a prison, and that he was happiest who soonest gained his liberty. The great work of this author, though somewhat mutilated, is sufficiently perfect to afford a fair notion of the critical acumen of the Greeks ; and if wanting in philosophical arrangement and definition, so as to prevent its utility to the modern student, it nevertheless displays an accurate perception of the beauties of then existing works, and is an interesting specimen of the talent, taste, and research, of the ancients.

SECTION XXVIII.

TACITUS, PROBUS, AND CARUS, EMPERORS OF ROME.

275 TO 284—9 YEARS.

Tacitus, seventy-five years of age, was elected by the senate after an inter-

regnum of eight months. He put Mnestheus to death for the murder of his predecessor; patronized learning; and commanded that the works of his namesake, Tacitus the historian, should be transcribed at the public charge. Under him the senators seemed to recover their ancient dignity, having in their emperor an extraordinary example of moderation, economy, and impartiality. Tacitus was on his march against the Persians, when seized with a fever, of which he died after a reign of only six months. *Probus*, his successor, was an active commander, and gained victories over the Germans, Goths, and Persians. Desirous of benefiting Sirmium, his native place, he put his soldiers to drain the stagnated waters of the neighbourhood; but the men disliking the task mutinied, and assassinated him, 282, in an iron tower, which he had constructed to overlook the workmen. *Carus* and his sons, *Carinus* and *Numerian*, were then chosen rulers of the empire. *Carus* put down a rebellion of the Sarmatians; and had just gained a victory over the king of Persia at Ctesiphon, when he was struck dead in his tent by lightning. His sons were soon after murdered, and *Diocletian* proclaimed emperor by the army.

CHIEF EVENT.

The Franks settled in Gaul. These people of the Rhine, having now shaken off all allegiance to the Romans, got possession of a large portion of Gaul, 277; and thus laid the foundation of modern France.

SECTION XXIX.

DIOCLETIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

284 TO 304—20 YEARS.

Diocletian, taking his general *Maximian* as a partner in the empire, found abundant occupation both for himself and his colleague. *Maximian* proceeded to put down an insurrection of the peasants in Gaul, while *Diocletian* quieted the Egyptians; and the Persians, Britons, Goths, and Scythians, required a like visitation, before either of the emperors could obtain an interval of quiet. They were no sooner free from foreign disturbance, than they commenced a persecution of the Christians; but on a sudden, to the surprise of their subjects, each laid down his dignity, 304, and retired into private life. *Diocletian* spent the remainder of his days in rural ease at Salona, declaring that he had never known happiness before; but *Maximian* was less settled, and died a violent death in a private quarrel.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Insurrection of Carausius. This chieftain, a Gaul by birth, usurped the sovereign power in Britain 286, declaring himself even emperor of Rome. *Maximian* sent his son-in-law *Constantine* to subdue him; but that general finding him too well reinforced from Gaul, he was suffered to remain seven years sole ruler of Britain. He was slain by *Alectus*, one of his officers.

The Martyr's Era, or tenth Chris-

tian persecution, began 303, at the Roman *Terminalia*, a festival of the god *Terminus*, annually held in February to determine the boundaries of estates. The pagans cruelly boasted that they would then put a termination to Christianity. The church at *Nicomedia* was plundered and burned in the presence of *Diocletian*; and it is impossible to estimate the number of victims who, by various horrible devices, were immolated.

Houses full of people were set on fire; thousands were tied in sacks and thrown into the sea; racks, scourges, swords, daggers, crosses, poison, starvation, were resorted to as engines of this demoniacal work; and neither age nor sex was spared. But, as it was the most severe, so was it the last of the primitive persecutions. Amongst the martyrs were St. George, the patron saint of the English; Vitus, a Sicilian of good family, who was offered up in sacrifice to a heathen deity by his own parent; Victor, of a high family at Marseilles, who, when he overturned an altar at which he was

commanded to sacrifice to Jupiter, had his foot cut off, and was then crushed to death; Romanus, deacon of Cæsarea, whose body was torn with hooks, his teeth beaten in, and his hair pulled out by the roots, and who was then strangled; Quirinus, bishop of Siscia, who was cast into a river, with a millstone about his neck; Timothy, deacon of Mauritania, and Maura, his bride, who, after enduring the rack, were crucified; and Simplicius and Faustinus, brothers, who were tied together by the neck, and drowned in the Tiber.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. George, the patron saint of England, was a native of Cappadocia, and rose in Diocletian's army. During the persecution he threw up his command, went boldly to the senate-house, and avowed his being a Christian; taking occasion at the same time to remonstrate against the folly of worshipping the heathen deities. By the emperor's express order, he

was dragged through the streets and beheaded, and his body thrown into the Tiber.

Porphyry, a Platonic philosopher, who retired to Sicily, and wrote with virulence against Christianity. The fathers of the primitive church were constantly engaged in refuting his heresies.

SECTION XXX.

THE ROMAN TETRARCHY.

304 to 311—7 YEARS.

The Tetrarchy, 301. A quadripartite division of the empire was agreed upon between Constantius, Galerius, Severus, and Maximin; superiority being given apparently to Constantius, who removed to Britain, and took up his abode at York. There is little recorded of this tetrarchy, beyond the transactions of Constantius, who, finding his end approaching, bequeathed his share to Constantine, his son. Severus soon after killed himself, on seeing other competitors arise; Maximin, the father-in-law of Constantine, also destroyed himself, when Constantine had discovered his plot to dethrone him; and Galerius died suddenly a natural death; so that Constantine, to be sole ruler, had only to put down Maxentius, the son of Maximin, who had seized on Rome. Accordingly, assembling an army in Britain, he marched upon Italy; and on his way thither, we are told by Eusebius, there one evening appeared at sunset an illuminated cross in the sky, with a Greek inscription, implying, 'Conquer through this,' which induced Constantine to embrace Christianity. As the doctrines of the true faith had spread throughout the Roman soldiery, the convert found his army rapidly augmented by the flocking in of declared Christians, and fearlessly proceeded towards Rome. Maxentius opposed him at the gates, but was defeated, and drowned in the Tiber; whereupon Constantine, taking his brother-in-law Licinius as a coadjutor, was acknowledged sovereign of the empire.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Herichius, of Alexandria, author of the Greek Lexicon which bears his name, the most valuable philological repertory saved out of the ancient stores.

Lactantius, an African, who set-

tling at Rome, embraced Christianity. His Divine Institutions obtained him the title of the Christian Cicero, from the purity of the latinity and the energy of the style.

SECTION XXXI.

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, EMPEROR OF ROME.

311 TO 337—26 YEARS.

Constantine. The first acts of the two princes were the abolition of punishment by crucifixion, and the making Christians eligible to places of authority; but Licinius favoured the pagan interests, and disputing on that score with Constantine, was eventually put to death, 323. Now sole emperor, Constantine called a council of bishops at Nice, 325, and banished Arius, who deprived Christ of divine rights; although, strange to say, the same monarch afterwards adopted Arian opinions. We can see little into Constantine's character: from some unexplained cause he put to death his empress Fausta, and Crispus his son. The most striking event of his reign, is the building of a city on the site of Byzantium, since called Constantinople, whither he removed the seat of empire, 328; a measure fraught with nothing less than the long-threatened dismemberment of the Roman empire. It occurred not, however, during the life of the founder; although he was compelled to drive 100,000 of the barbaric tribes from the gates of Rome, to which they had advanced, on finding he had ordered his best garrisons from the Danube into the east. By making his sons governors of provinces, Constantine was enabled to conclude his reign in peace, and even with splendour: and the Persians and other easterns sent ambassadors desiring his alliance. He died after a short illness at Nicomedia, aged sixty-five.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Sacred College founded 311; when it was agreed that seventy Roman clergymen (six bishops, fifty priests, and fourteen deacons) representing the seventy elders of the primitive Christian church, should form a society to be known by the title of Cardinals, or chiefs, out of which the bishop of Rome, as St. Peter's representative, was to be chosen head of the hierarchy. The assemblies of the college are termed conclaves; and each member now wears a red hat.

The Council of Nice was held 325, to examine into the principles of Arius, who denied the divinity of

Christ. He was condemned by the same as a heretic; and Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria, his opponent, hereupon drew up the creed called *Nicene*, in our present communion service. The creed called *Athanasian* is now allowed to have been written in the fifth century, by Vigilius, an African bishop. There have been twenty assemblies of the heads of the Christian church, called general councils: the first held by the apostles in the year 50. The next of note was the one at Nice; then the seventh, during the Saxon Heptarchy, to restore image worship; the tenth, in Stephen's reign, at which 1000 fathers

attended to preserve the church temporalities; the fifteenth, in the time of Edward II. to suppress the knights-templars; and the twentieth, during the reign of Edward VI., to condemn the tenets of Luther and Calvin.

St. Pacomo, an Egyptian, founded several Christian monasteries, con-

taining 1200 monks in each. His faith is said to have been so effectual, that he walked among serpents unhurt; and when he had occasion to cross the Nile, was transported from one side to the other on the back of a crocodile!

SECTION XXXII.

THE JOINT REIGN OF THE THREE SONS OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, IN ROME.

337 TO 361—24 YEARS.

Constantine II. succeeded his father, in conjunction with his two brothers, *Constans*, and *Constantius*. They divided the empire into three parts, but did not long agree together; for *Constantine* soliciting *Constans* to yield part of Italy to him, and the latter refusing, a battle was the consequence, in which *Constantine* fell. *Constans* then remained sole master of the western part of the empire till 350; when *Magnentius* declaring himself sovereign, and being supported by the army, he fled towards Spain, and was assassinated at the foot of the Pyrenees. While *Constantius*, who now alone remained, was preparing to oppose *Magnentius*, three other pretenders to the throne arose; these the emperor quieted by negotiation; and attacking his chief enemy, first at *Mursa* and then at *Lyons*, wholly defeated him. *Magnentius* escaping into a house, slew with his own hand his mother and brother, and then threw himself upon his sword. Thus freed from his most dangerous rival, the victor, having appointed his cousin *Julian* his heir, or *Cæsar*, set himself vigorously to the task of repelling the incursions of the barbarian tribes, that had penetrated the empire at every point. Resolved also on the destruction of paganism, he sent *Modestus* into the east, with power to put to death all who refused to embrace Christianity; and the severity that commander used in Palestine on the occasion, was long remembered. *Constantius* was making preparations against the Persians, when news arrived that the army had declared *Julian* emperor; he turned therefore towards Thrace, where *Julian* was, and had reached the foot of mount *Taurus*, when he was seized with a fever, and died.

EMINENT PERSON.

Donatus, bishop of Carthage, was exiled by *Constans*, for having denied the right of the Roman pontiff to elect to his see; and for asserting that the people of Numidia alone had the power. Hence *donatist* became a common term for the first separatists in temporal matters from the Roman hierarchy.

SECTION XXXIII.

JULIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

361 TO 363—2 YEARS.

Julian, called the apostate, because he renounced the Christian faith, began his brief reign at the age of thirty, by reforming the court, and abolishing

useless offices. He reduced the *agentes in rebus* from 10,000 to 17, and got rid of thousands of functionaries, who, by their large salaries, had drained the exchequer. He then improved the city, constructed a fine harbour for ships, and built a magnificent library. The Persians being still in arms, he advanced as far as Antioch; and having there sacrificed to Jupiter, though he forbade any annoyance to the Christians, passed to Hierapolis, ordering the pagan worship to be re-established in every city on his route. As he entered Hierapolis, the fall of a porch killed many of his soldiers; and at Batnæ the overturning of a large load of straw destroyed fifty others. Having at length reached Ctesiphon, the capital of Persia, his soldiers became dispirited at the thought of wintering so far from home; and while he was endeavouring to animate them during the first collision with the enemy, a dart, either from the Persians or his own men, pierced him in the side, and occasioned his almost instantaneous death. Julian was a man of cultivated mind; he wrote Greek with peculiar elegance; and his book called *The Cæsars*, wherein he reviews the actions of some of his predecessors, has been very deservedly admired.

EMINENT PERSON.

Eutropius, author of the neat epitome of Roman history, is supposed to have been a senator, from the epithet *clarissimus* (most renowned) prefixed to his work.

SECTION XXXIV.

JOVIAN, VALENTINIAN, AND VALENS, EMPERORS OF ROME.

363 TO 378—15 YEARS.

Jovian had recently retired into private life, when called on to fill the vacant throne. He made peace with the Persians, and conducted Julian's army safely towards Constantinople; commanding the Christian worship to be restored upon his arrival at Antioch. He espoused the orthodox side against the Arians, wrote Athanasius a letter of invitation, and (it has been said) urged him to write the creed which bears his name. *Jovian* lived but six months after his elevation; being stifled in his bed by a pan of charcoal. *Valentinian* was next chosen by the army, and selected his brother *Valens* as Cæsar, giving him full power over Asia, Egypt, and Thrace, and reserving to himself Illyricum, Italy, Gaul, Spain, and Britain. *Valens*, by this arrangement, had Constantinople for his residence; and *Valentinian* Rome. The latter had little else to do than to keep out the barbarians, who assaulted the western portion in every quarter. The Quadi, whose country lay along the banks of the Danube, he almost exterminated, 375; upon which they sued for peace in the most abject manner. The emperor received their ambassadors, but could not contain his rage while speaking with them on the matter; and falling into a fit of apoplexy, expired in their presence. *Valens* had no sooner taken the reins of government, than Procopius, a relation of Julian, aided by the rich eunuch Eugenius, declared himself emperor of the east; but the pretender having been put to death, and the Goths forced into an advantageous peace, *Valens* declared himself an Arian; and, in the spirit of later days, persecuted the orthodox Christians, eighty of whose clergy he burned in a ship. During an attack upon Rome by the Goths, 378, the emperor received a wound; and though hurried away by the soldiers during the obscurity of the night, the enemy discovered the place of his retreat, and, setting fire to the building, destroyed him therein.

EVENT.

The Alans and Huns entered Europe, 376, in vast numbers; and though kept back by the Romans to a certain extent, they gradually gained strength; and, by the accession of the Gothic tribes, made, in thirty years from this period, such progress in the conquest of Italy, as paved the way for the extermination of the most powerful and interesting of ancient empires.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Basil, an African bishop, celebrated for his talented opposition to the Arians; Cyril, bishop of Jerusalem, one of the most gifted fathers of the church; and *Gregory Nazianzen, whom Erasmus considers the deepest theologian of his day.*

SECTION XXXV.

GRATIAN, EMPEROR OF ROME.

378 TO 383—5 YEARS.

Gratian, son of Valentinian, became emperor at sixteen; and appointed Theodosius his Cæsar, with power over the western dominions. Gratian's courage in the field was as remarkable as his love of learning and devotion to philosophy. He routed his German invaders in a battle, where they lost 300,000 men; and supported the tottering state by unusual prudence and intrepidity. His enmity to the Pagan worship proved his ruin; for Maximinus, who supported the party in the state which was opposed to Christianity, raised a large force of the discontented, and attacking the emperor in Gaul, deprived him of life.

EMINENT PERSON.

*Ausonius, preceptor to the son of Valentinian, and pretorian prefect of Gaul and Italy. As a poet he is well known; his 'Moselle' and 'Illustri-*ous Cities' are works valuable for the local information they contain, though debased by licentious allusion.

SECTION XXXVI.

THEODOSIUS THE GREAT, EMPEROR OF ROME.

383 TO 395—12 YEARS.

Theodosius was the last emperor who was sole master of the Roman empire. The first years of his reign were marked by conquests of the barbaric tribes; the Goths were defeated in Thrace, and 4000 of their chariots, and a vast number of prisoners, taken. This campaign intimidated the enemies of the empire; and from all quarters arrived ambassadors with proposals of peace. The emperor's zeal as a Christian has been applauded by all ecclesiastical writers: it was his aim to support the revealed religion, as much by his own private example of temperance, meekness, and charity, as by his public edicts and institutions. His want of clemency, however, was singularly marked, when the people of Thessalonica had killed one of his officers. He ordered his soldiers to put all

the inhabitants to the sword, and 6000 persons were cruelly butchered in that city in the space of three hours ; a sanguinary proceeding for which St. Ambrose compelled him to do public penance. He died of a dropsy, at Milan, aged fifty-nine, parting his dominions between his two sons ; Arcadius being declared emperor of the east, with Constantinople for his capital, and Honorius of the west, with ancient Rome.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Rome divided in twain. As the axe was laid to the root of the tree when Constantine removed the seat of empire to Byzantium ; so the authorized division of the empire by the will of Theodosius speedily levelled it with the ground. The separation into the eastern and western empires took place 395.

Bells were first used in the Christian churches, 370. It was long customary to give names to them ; and the ceremony of christening was performed with much pomp. The science of *bell-ringing* was the invention of our Saxon forefathers, and has always been peculiar to Britain.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Augustine, though at first a Manichee, became one of the most orthodox fathers of the church. With the exception of Aristotle's, no writings contributed more than his to encourage the spirit of subtle disputation which distinguished the scholastic ages. The only fair estimate of his character can be formed from his confessions, which are written with unblushing frankness. After teaching rhetoric at Carthage, Augustine crossed to Rome, and recanted his errors, on hearing the discourses of St. Ambrose. He was then baptized, and returning to Africa, 388, obtained a garden without the walls of the city of Hippo, and there associated with himself eleven persons of sanctity, distinguished by their exercise of fastings and prayer, and by their primitive dress. Hence arose the first order of mendicants,

commonly called Augustine Friars. The primate of Numidia made Augustine bishop of Hippo, where he died, 430, during the investment of the city by the Vandals. The branches of friars are four : Augustines, or mendicant ; Franciscans, or gray ; Dominicans, or black ; and Carmelites, or white.

St. Ambrose, bishop of Milan. When the emperor Theodosius had so cruelly sacrificed the people of Thessalonica, this prelate refused him admission to his cathedral. Meeting the sovereign at the porch, who confessed his crime, pleading the example of David, Ambrose directed him to imitate David in his repentance ; and compelled him to do penance. St. Ambrose has left us a treasure in his *De Officiis*, wherein he admirably explains the duties of Christian ministers.

SECTION XXXVII.

HONORIUS, EMPEROR OF THE WEST.

395 to 423—28 YEARS.

Honorius was acknowledged emperor of the west with great rejoicings by his subjects ; who hoped to see the glory of ancient Rome revive, under the auspices of a resident monarch. But the timid disposition of the sovereign unfitted him for the part he had to play on the great stage of the world. The Goths, headed by their king Alaric, after having overrun Greece-proper, invaded

Italy, and suffered a defeat 406, by Stilicho, the general of Honorius, at Polentia. The barbaric camp was invested, the wife of Alaric taken, many thousands of Roman prisoners released from slavery, and Alaric forced to sign a treaty for the evacuation of the peninsula. Shortly after this success, however, vast hordes of Tartars, driven out by the Chinese, entered the western empire; and Alaric, now in the service of Honorius, bribed Stilicho to betray his country, and marched to the gate of Rome, 410. The soldiery of Honorius instantly put the treacherous general to death, and twice drove the Gothic troops from the city; but the superior force of Alaric enabled him at length to gain an entrance. Honorius, who had fled to Milan, was soon relieved by the intelligence of Alaric's death; and at the same juncture, by the decease of Constantine, a common soldier, who had for several years usurped the dominion of Britain, Spain, and Gaul, those provinces were restored to the empire. The monarch's last years were passed in comparative peace at Ravenna, which he had made his capital, in consequence of Alaric's destruction of Rome.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Eastern Empire under Arcadius and Theodosius II.—Arcadius, the elder son of Theodosius, proved himself an effeminate prince, abandoning his subjects to the tyranny of his ministers, and losing himself in the pleasures of a voluptuous court. He died 408.—*Theodosius II.*, being only eight at his accession, his sister, ministers, and eunuchs, ruled for some years. The first memorable event, after he had taken the government into his own hands, was his total defeat of the Persians, whose king, Yezdegerdes, had been left guardian to the young emperor. Throughout his reign he was occupied in negotiating and contending with the barbaric tribes; yet, with all his care, he saw the Vandals settle in Spain and Carthage, and the Visigoths ravage the greater part of Europe. The Huns, however, were driven from Pannonia; and the Goths and Alans, disputing amongst themselves, were greatly reduced, without the labour of the emperors, eastern or western. Theodosius, though an indolent prince, drew up what is called the Theodosian code, being a set of laws, selected from the most useful ordinances of his predecessors; and died 450, greatly lamented by the Christians, whose friend he had always been.

Temporary Union of the Picts and Scots. Caledonia, the modern Scotland, had long been under the Scandi-

navian tribes; when the Picts, one of those tribes, drove out all the others, about 100 before Christ. The exiled clans emigrated to Ireland; where they continued five centuries, and mingled with the natives and the Carthaginian settlers. About the year 400, however, they ventured a return to the land of their forefathers. The Picts, now the settled possessors of the soil, endeavoured to repel the descendants of their ancient rivals, as foreign invaders; but when the Romans of Britain, taking advantage of their disturbed state, poured in upon them 404, the hostile tribes agreed to unite. They therefore took the Scottish chieftain, Fergus II., as their leader, drove out the southrons, and for a considerable period lived in harmony as one people.

The Visigoths settled in Spain under their leader Ullia, 419, and founded a kingdom there which endured nearly 300 years. They incorporated with them the Suevi and Vandals, tribes which had come from Germany to the peninsula ten years before. The Romans divided the Goths into visigoths, or western, and ostrogoths, or eastern. They are supposed to have come originally from Sarmatia into Pomerania; and their territory had at length reached to the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Azoph. Their most renowned chieftain was Woden, deified after death by the Saxons; from whom

our Wednesday has its appellation.

Rise of France. Pharamond, 420, united the Franks of Gaul into a nation, gave them laws, and was elected their king. The country soon obtained the appellation of Francia; and though less in extent than the ancient Gaul, it soon comprehended the greater portion of the modern France. Pharamond's law, which prohibited the succession of females to the throne, is still in force in France, and is called *salique*, from the sallists, or hall-owners, who possessed houses or halls in reward, as fiefs not to be held by women in descent. Pharamond was the first of the Merovingian race of French kings, so termed from his grandson, Meroveus, by subsequent historians; because the latter cemented the monarchy of which his ancestor had roughly laid the foundation. The Merovingian line held France till 752, when the Carolingian succeeded; they remained until 987, when Hugh Capet brought in the family at present on the throne,—the Capetian.

The Romans departed from Britain 422, after holding it nearly 500 years. On all sides the parent state, after being divided by the folly of its rulers, was assailed by ruthless barbarians; whereon the governors of the various

colonies, and the men of rank under them, quitted their insecure posts, and hastened, with such mercenary troops as they could command, to the rescue, if possible, of their oppressed country.

Rise of the Nestorians. Nestorius, patriarch of Constantinople, distinguished himself by his zeal for the extirpation of the Arians, Novatians, and such heretics as persisted in celebrating the feast of Easter on the fourteenth day of the moon; and for this unimportant deviation, several persons were put to death by his agents at Miletum and Sardis. The time arrived, however, when he was to suffer from an intolerance equal to his own; for holding the opinion that the Virgin Mary was not of a divine nature, and consequently not an object of worship, a general council banished him to Tarsus, 431, without allowing him to explain his doctrines; a fact from which we may deduce the early corruption of the Romish church. His sect by no means died with him: in the tenth century the Nestorians abounded in Chaldea, and extended their opinions as far as China; and a remnant of them (Romanists in all but the tenet in question) exists still under a pontiff, at Mousul on the Tigris, the original place of manufacture of what we call *muslin*.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Chrysostom, bishop of Constantinople, was banished for opposing the raising of a statue to the empress Eudoxia near the great church, for the purpose of public games; and never returned to his see. His works are in Greek; and although not written with Athenian purity, display much fire and elegance. The closing prayer of our church service is by this prelate.

St. Jerome, or Hieronymus, one of the fathers, settled at Bethlehem, where the pious lady, Paula, made him prior of her monasteries. The followers of Origen maintaining the finite nature of future punishments, he wrote to refute

their heresy; and he effected a Latin version of the Old Testament, now called the *vulgate*, which was finally adopted by the Roman church, together with his corrected version of the New.

Cyril, bishop of Alexandria, who, when the Jews insulted some Christians there 415, plundered their synagogues at the head of the people, to the no small displeasure of Orestes, governor of the city. The result was a species of civil war; the parties of the governor and bishop continually fought in the streets; and when Orestes had put to torture a monk whom he had

seized, Cyril seized Hypatia, a learned pagan lady, the friend and instigator of Orestes, and had her torn piecemeal. The contest here ended; and the bishop's last days were spent in a polemical dispute with Nestorius, respecting the divinity of the Virgin Mary.

SECTION XXXVIII.

VALENTINIAN II., EMPEROR OF THE WEST.

423 TO 455—32 YEARS.

Valentinian II. succeeded his uncle Honorius; and his mother Placidia was named regent during his minority. He was scarcely seated on the throne, when the empire was attacked by the Huns under Attila. Ætius, who was at the head of the forces of the empire, defended it against Attila with great spirit and success, till he was murdered by Valentinian with his own hand, on suspicion of aspiring to the throne. In the mean time the provinces were overrun by the barbarians; Africa and Sicily were in the hands of the Vandals, Spain in those of the Visigoths, and Gaul had fallen to the Franks; while Britain, undefended, had called in the Saxons. In this forlorn situation of the state, Valentinian was assassinated by one Maximus, whose wife he had insulted; and Maximus was thereupon acknowledged emperor.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Eastern Empire under Marcian. His winning address and talents raised him from the post of a common soldier to be secretary to one of the court of Theodosius; and when that emperor died, he was called to fill his place. When Attila demanded of him the annual tribute, he replied 'that he kept his gold for his friend, and had nothing but iron (meaning the sword) for his enemies.' His reign was short; but from the security which the eastern empire felt under his sway, it was called the golden age. He married Pulcheria, the sister of Theodosius, who had so often assisted her brother; and died as he was preparing to attack the Vandals in Africa. It is recorded of Marcian that, when in obscurity, he, out of humanity, burned the corpse of a man which he found lying in a road; and that, only at the instant he was appointed to die as the supposed murderer, the real offender was discovered.

Foundation of the kingdom of England. Historians relate that, the Romans having withdrawn from Britain, the people were left without protectors; and that the Scots threatening them with a descent, Vortigern, their chief king, applied to Hengist and Horsa, two renowned German chieftains, who came to their aid with a Saxon army. Having easily subdued the invaders, they were unwilling to depart from a country which offered them so many more advantages than their own; and in a pitched battle at Aylesford, on Salisbury plain, 454, the fate of the island was decided, many British nobles being slain, and Vortigern himself taken prisoner. The monarchy of England must be considered to have had its rise at the period of the battle of Aylesford; immediately after which Hengist founded the kingdom of Kent, the first portion of

the *Heptarchy*, as we term the division of the south of the island into seven petty states. These were Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumberland, East Anglia, and Mercia. But although there were thus seven distinct rulers in Britain, one of the seven was always distinguished above the rest, either for his judgment, his talents, or what is more likely, his numerous army, and ambitious projects; and this without reference to family succession, and without favour to any one state. Thus there appear to have been eighteen acknowledged chieftains from Hengist to the dissolution of the Heptarchy by Egbert; to each of whom, in any great emergency, especially in war, the other six were accustomed to defer, in the manner of the modern Germanic confederation. Horsa the companion of Hengist had fallen in battle at Aylesford; so that the latter was supreme ruler, 454; Ella, 491; Cherdic, 519; Kenric, 534; Chevline, 560; Ethelbert, 592; Redwald, 616; Edwin (great), 624; Oswald, 634; Oswy, 642; Wolfhere, 670; Ethelred, 675; Cenred, 704; Ceolred, 709; Ethelbald, 716; Offa, 757; Egfrid, 794; and Cenolf, 795. The last eight were kings of Mercia. It is said that the standard of Hengist was the white horse, borne, as at present, in the shield of the house of Brunswick. He released Vortigern from his captivity, on his promising to cede what are now Essex, Sussex, and Middlesex; whereon Vortigern retired to a vast forest near the fall of the Wye in Radnorshire, and was there sometime

after killed by lightning. He married Hengist's daughter, Rowena.

Death of Attila, and Fall of the Huns. Attila, king of the Huns, emphatically called 'the scourge of God,' became sole monarch of Germany and Scythia, 447, by murdering his brother Bleda. Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, and Ætius the general of Valentinian, defeated him in Gaul; notwithstanding which, he marched to Rome against Valentinian, whose licentious sister, Honoria, had offered herself to him as a wife. The emperor, to induce him to retire, consented to pay him tribute; soon after which Attila was found dead in his bed, through the rupture of a blood-vessel, 453. With him ended the brief empire of the Huns.

Rome sacked by Genseric. Upon the murder of Valentinian, the empress Eudoxia secretly invited Genseric, the Vandal chief, to assault Rome; which he did 455, and carried off all that the Goths had left. A ship was loaded for Carthage with costly statues, the golden roof of the capitol, and the sacred vessels, adorned with precious stones, which had been taken by Titus out of the temple at Jerusalem; all these treasures, however, were lost in the passage to Africa.

Origin of Venice. When Attila entered Italy, 452, the people of Verona and other places fled in great numbers towards the Adriatic sea, and laid the foundation of the city of Venice, so called from Venetia, the province of Italy whence the exiles had escaped.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Patrick, the patron-saint of Ireland was born in Scotland, and carried captive when young into Ireland. In six months he was released, and returned to his native country; whereon he confessed himself prompted by visions to undertake the con-

version of the pagan Irish. Proceeding, therefore, to the place of his former captivity, the greatest success crowned his endeavours; and after having baptized the kings of Dublin and Munster, and the seven sons of the king of Connaught, he declared himself bishop of

Armagh, where he founded both monasteries and schools. Here for forty years he continued his labours, performing many alleged miracles, especially that of delivering the island from venomous reptiles. Armagh became henceforward the metropolitan see of Ireland.

Merlin, the magician, was long resident in Ireland, whence, say credulous historians, he removed the stones which form that remarkable monument of antiquity, Stonehenge. Instead of dying, he is affirmed to have fallen into a magic slumber, from

which after ages he was to awake: to this fiction Spenser alludes in his *Faery Queene*.

Eutyches, abbot of a monastery near Constantinople, became founder of a sect which affirmed that Christ and the Logos were different, his body being denied to be human. At the same period lived *Pelagius*, the heresiarch, who was abbot of Bangor in Wales. The pope excommunicated him for denying original sin, and asserting that man could be saved by his own merits.

SECTION XXXIX.

THE TYRANNY OF RICIMER, AND FALL OF ROME.

455 TO 476—21 YEARS.

Nothing could be more deplorable than the state of affairs, after the murder of Valentinian. Ricimer, a Goth, though unequal to the task of ruling the empire, no sooner found Maximus had been put to death during the sack of the Vandals, than he successively put Avitus-Gallus, Marjorianus, and Severus on the throne, scrupling not to murder them when it suited his views. When Leo, the eastern emperor, heard that Ricimer had poisoned Severus, he sent Anthemius, whose daughter was married to Ricimer, as a candidate for the purple; but though raised to the imperial dignity, his son-in-law slew him, 472, placing Olybius in his stead, who, together with the tyrant himself, died, it is supposed by poison, at the close of the same year. At length Orestes, who held a high command in the army, drove out one Nepos, who had seized the throne, and proclaimed his own son, Augustulus, emperor, 475; but in the next year, the barbarians, who had long served as Roman soldiers, and were called allies, demanded, as a reward for their services, the third part of the lands in Italy. As Orestes refused to comply with this claim, they, with one Odoacer at their head, drove him into Pavia; and taking the place by assault, slew the general. They then seized his son, Augustulus, in Ravenna, and declared the empire of Rome to be no more. Odoacer hereupon styled himself king of Italy, but refused to assume the purple, or any other symbol of regal authority. So fell, 524 years after the battle of Pharsalia, the queen of nations, the empire of empires! She who had given laws for centuries to the civilized world, herself lay prostrate! Now did ruthless barbarians contemptuously pull down the magnificent structures of all time, and tread on laws, the result of the profound, laborious, and collective wisdom and philosophy of ages.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Fall of Rome, 476. A long night of worse than Cimmerian darkness began to overspread the world upon the destruction of the greatest of earthly kingdoms; and the sun of science was not again seen above the horizon for 800

years. From the year of Christ 400 to that of 1200 did the *dark ages* continue: even then the luminary did but peep upon the world: and until three more centuries had passed, his light shone not in Britain but through clouds. Till the reign of our eighth Henry (we would say the year 1500), men in general were, in point of scientific and practical knowledge, rather below than equal to the Romans at the period of the fall of their empire. Eight hundred years of positive darkness, and three hundred of immature light, in all *eleven* centuries, therefore, constitute what may be termed correctly *the middle ages*. To the early Christians, and especially to the conventual system of the Roman Catholics, and to them and that alone, are we indebted for all that we now possess of the writings of the ancients, whether religious, moral, historical, or scientific. Solely did the professors of the Christian faith, in the retired cells of their monasteries, secretly foster what may be called the embers of humane and physical learning. Saving what they were able in the way of manuscripts, they multiplied them in their hours of leisure; and to many sound scholars amongst them we are indebted for the accuracy of the copies, and the light thrown upon the text by judicious annotations. We must not wonder if, when these precious relics were recovered and understood, they should excite a veneration, which many centuries in addition have only tended to strengthen and perpetuate. These documents were found to contain more sublime and elegant poetry, more refined yet nervous eloquence

more brilliant, pointed, and ingenious wit; above all, profounder views of law, criticism, and philosophy, than had been dreamed of since the subversion of civilization. In these treasures the human heart, with its springs of action, its secrets and its depths has been depicted with the finger of truth; and although, for want of the inductive philosophy, the startling novelties of experiment are wanting, the faithful delineations of nature *as she is* claim our utmost admiration. Hence the value of Greek and Latin as objects of study, amongst all who aspire to superior intelligence; and a province of Rome as Britain was for five long centuries, there is no fact more indisputable than that our vernacular tongue cannot be acquired with philosophical accuracy without a very intimate acquaintance with the structure of the Latin language.

Stonehenge erected. This druidical temple is supposed to have been erected by Ambrosius, a British chief, 460, to commemorate the assassination of the nobles by Hengist after the fight on Salisbury plain. From the appellation given to stones so raised for religious purposes of *amber-stones*, the neighbouring town of Amesbury took its name. The materials of Stonehenge seem to be a portion of the grey wethers, blocks of stone so termed by the shepherds, lying on Marlborough down, fifteen miles distant from the erection. Within the last twenty years the venerable relic has greatly dilapidated, and the vibrating altar-stone become fixed in the ground.

EMINENT PERSON.

Simeon Stylites, a remarkable fanatic, gave up his shepherd's crook to enter a monastery, which after some time he quitted for abodes on mountains, and in caverns, fasting for days together in the spirit of ascetic devotion. At length he adopted the strange fancy of dwelling on the tops

of pillars (whence his surname), and with the notion of climbing higher and higher towards heaven, he successively removed from a pillar of six cubits to others of twelve, twenty-two, thirty-six, and forty in height. In the mild climate of Syria he was thus enabled to pass forty-seven years in this ex-

traordinary manner ; and his existence was at last terminated by an ulcer, at the age of sixty-nine. Simeon being regarded as a person of unusual sanctity, the people had supplied him with food, with all the zeal of profound admiration ; and when dead, his body was taken down by the hands of bishops, and conveyed to Antioch by an escort of 3000 soldiers, with almost imperial honours. His fanaticism produced many imitators ; and an existence on pillars, was exhibited in Asia until the twelfth century.

MIDDLE AGES.

PERIOD THE EIGHTH.

From the Fall of Rome to the Hegira.

476 TO 622—146 YEARS.

SECTION I.

ZENO, EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

476 TO 491—15 YEARS.

LEO I. and II. had succeeded Marcian in the eastern empire, and the latter was followed by his own father, Zeno. The conspiracy of Basiliscus drove Zeno from his throne; and being besieged in Isauria, he was there shut up in a fortress by the usurper. Basiliscus, however, disgusting the people by his vices, Zeno was liberated, and seizing his oppressor, caused him to be starved in a castle of Cappadocia. During this usurpation, a dreadful fire at Constantinople consumed the famous library; and this calamity was followed by an earthquake which destroyed a large portion of the city. The conclusion of Zeno's reign was marked by the irruption of the Ostrogoths under their king Theodoric; but the barbarians suddenly evacuated Thrace to attack Odoacer; and soon after, the emperor died.

CHIEF EVENT.

Invasion of Theodoric. This king of the Ostrogoths entered Italy, 488, to dethrone Odoacer; but having made terms with the usurper, he agreed to reign conjointly with him. Alliances of this kind have seldom the capacity of endurance; and we soon hear of the assassination of Odoacer by his partner, while sitting at a banquet. The fear in which the eastern emperor

Anastasius stood of Theodoric, induced him to assent to the claim of the Goth, when he desired to be recognised as sole monarch of Italy; and shortly after this point had been settled, Theodoric embraced Christianity as an Arian. His death, 526, is said to have been occasioned by remorse, for having unjustly sacrificed to his suspicions the lives of Boethius and Symmachus.

EMINENT PERSON.

Clovis, considered the founder of the French monarchy, succeeded his father, 481, in the petty state which originated with Pharamond. When fighting against the German tribes, he vowed that, should he obtain the victory, he would worship the God of the

Christians; and being successful, was baptized with 3000 of his subjects on Christmas-day. He cleared his dominions of the Goths, made Paris his capital, and died there aged forty-five, 511.

SECTION II.

ANASTASIUS I., EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

491 TO 518—27 YEARS.

Anastasius I., called the Silentiary, was born of obscure parents; but obtained the purple by marrying Ariadne, the widow of Zeno. He possessed merit and valour; and his rule might have been tranquil, had he not embraced the tenets of the Eutychians, and thus offended his subjects. It was in his reign that, when an attack was made by the barbarians on Constantinople, 514, one Proclus, a mathematician, set fire to the enemy's fleet by means of a speculum of brass.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Kingdom of Sussex founded. Ella founded, 491, the second state of the Heptarchy (Sussex, or South Saxony), which included the present county of Sussex, and part of Surrey. He landed with his Saxon followers at West Wittering, near Chichester, and gradually gained ground till 491, when he took Anderida, the capital of the Regni; and as a punishment for the obstinacy of its defenders, put all the garrison to the sword. Ella's son, Cissa, improved the capital of the new state, and called it Cissa-ceaster (Cissa's castle), now Chichester.

The Round Towers of Ireland. These irregular buildings, respecting whose original and use vast disputes have arisen, are supposed to have been first erected while Anastasius was em-

peror, when piracies and predatory attacks were frequent on the coast of Ireland. The most careful examiners of local history have decided that they were always raised near to some monastery or priory, that they are consequently of Christian origin, and that they served the double purpose of belfry and tower, wherein the community to which each belonged deposited its books and sacred vessels, and took refuge on occasion of any sudden attack.

Time first computed by the Christian Era. It was in 516 that Dionysius, a monk, induced Anastasius to sanction the computation of time which we now use, and which takes the year of our Lord's nativity as the year *one*.

EMINENT PERSON.

Gondebaud, king of Burgundy, a state which had just risen into being, was a tributary of Clovis, king of France. He put to death his brother Godesil for a revolt, and then devoted himself to the improvement of his

country, which included that portion of territory lying between the Vosges and the sea of Marseilles; drawing up a code of laws of established excellence, still known by the title of *la loi Gombellic*.

SECTION III.

JUSTIN, EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

518 TO 527—9 YEARS.

Justin. The eastern empire was fast following the western to ruin, when the vigorous conduct of Justin, an aged man, who had been a swineherd, revived the martial spirit of the Romans. Finding the cares of government too harassing, he took his nephew, Justinian, to assist him; and had scarcely adopted the measure when he died.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Reign of King Arthur. This celebrated British prince, whose history is involved in fable, beat Cerdic, a Saxon invader, in twelve pitched battles; and in the last one with such success on Bamsdown, near Bath, that no new settlement of the Germans, after that of Wessex, could be effected in the island during thirteen successive years. The reign of Arthur extended from 518 to 542, a period of twenty-four years. In 520 he founded his order of the Round Table at Winchester; the knights of which engendered that spirit of chivalry which, in aftertimes, tended so greatly to the civilization of Europe. None were admitted amongst the companions but men noted for eminently virtuous and valorous deeds; and that no disputes concerning precedence might arise, they sat on occasions of assembly at a round table, Arthur himself making one in the circle. This memorable piece of furniture is suspended at the east end of the chapel of the old castle of Winchester, now the county hall; it is made of oaken planks, and is eighteen feet in diameter, and ornamented with a central figure of the king, the names of his knights being painted in black letter as a border. Arthur was assassinated during a battle, by one of his own treacherous kinsmen, 542; and his remains were interred at Glastonbury. Henry II.

having desired a search to be made for his coffin, it was found, 1160, in the isle of Avalon, whereon Glastonbury now stands; the Latin inscription, implying 'Here lies the renowned King Arthur, in the isle of Avalon,' was unimpaired; and on the preserved body were to be seen the marks of ten wounds. In Arthur's reign, one Porta, a Saxon, landed, and built a town which stood on the site of the modern Portsmouth.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Wessex, or West Saxons, the third of the Heptarchy, by Cerdic, 519. It included Somersetshire, Devonshire, Cornwall, Wiltshire, Hampshire, Berkshire, and Dorsetshire; but Cornwall was not at first a portion. Three centuries before the Christian era, the Belgæ colonized Somersetshire; and about fifty years before Christ, Divitiacus, king of the Suesones, another Celtic tribe of Gaul, brought over a fresh party; these two divided between them the better portion of what was now called Wessex; and the land is still marked for eighty miles, from Andover, Hants, to Portishead on the shore of the British channel, with the remains of a fosse, dug by those tribes. Cornwall was so called from *cornu* a horn, because of the shape of the county, and *weale* the name which the Saxons gave the Britons,—whence the word *Wales*.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Boethius, the last distinguished philosopher of ancient Rome, was of noble origin. After having studied at Athens, he read the Fathers, and became a sound Christian, defending the Trinity against the Arians, and being the first who applied scholastic philosophy to the service of Christian theology. Boethius was made consul of Rome, 510, and two of his sons were consuls together, 522. Thus far prosperous in the circumstances of his life, his future fate and death were particularly disastrous. Theodoric,

who then governed Italy, listened to accusations against him, when charged with a treasonable correspondence with Justin. The philosopher was imprisoned in the tower of Pavia; and the senate passed on him sentence of death, which he suffered in prison, 526. While under confinement, he composed his celebrated work, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*. It is written in form of a dialogue between the author and the genius of philosophy, in sections of prose and verse. The topics of consolation are

uniformly drawn from heathen philosophy, and the sentiments are noble and elevated. Few works have undergone so many editions, and it has been translated into all cultivated languages. There are two versions by British sovereigns; one in Anglo-Saxon by Alfred the great, and an

English translation by queen Elizabeth.

Priscian, the grammarian, had a school at Constantinople, 525. He was a Christian, and author of several works on grammar, still extant. The phrase 'to break the head of *Priscian*,' is usually applied to such as fall into grammatical errors.

SECTION IV.

JUSTINIAN I., EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

527 to 565—38 YEARS.

Justinian I., when sole monarch by the death of Justin, turned his arms against Chosroes king of Persia, whom his general Belisarius utterly defeated; he then suppressed the rebellion of Hypatius, the nephew of Anastasius, who, while declaring himself emperor in the Forum, was slain by Belisarius. The event which has rendered this reign interesting to posterity, is the reformation of the Roman jurisprudence. Tribonian, a lawyer of extensive learning, aided by competent associates, completed the Justinian code, 529; and its publication was followed by that of the Pandects, a compilation of the decisions of former civilians; and by the Institutes, an elementary treatise for the use of students. Justinian displayed his piety in the erection of numerous churches, among which was Sancta Sophia, now the principal mosque of the Turkish empire. Bridges, hospitals, aqueducts, high-roads, fortresses, and all kinds of works of public utility, were likewise undertaken in the various provinces. The progress of the Gothic king Totila in Italy, although finally repressed by Belisarius and Narses, produced considerable anxiety to the declining age of the emperor; whose uneasiness was much increased by a sudden incursion of the Bulgarians, and by a conspiracy against himself amongst his principal officers. As being implicated in the latter, Belisarius was disgraced and imprisoned, although subsequently declared innocent, and restored to royal favour.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Essex, or East Saxons, the fourth portion of the Heptarchy, was effected by Erchenwin, 532. It included the present Essex, Middlesex, and part of Herts; and Augusta, the modern London, was its capital. The Trinobantes, the first tribe of Britons that submitted to the Romans, had occupied as nearly as possible this portion of England. The word Middlesex, (middle Saxons) was applied to the kingdom of Essex generally, on account of its inland situation.

The Vandal Kingdom destroyed. Belisarius landed at Carthage, and

wholly extinguished this power, 534, after a duration of ninety-five years.

The Consular Office at Rome abolished. This office, though properly belonging to the republican form of government, had been continued after the restoration of monarchy, and occasionally, though contrary to the ancient institution, centred in one person: it expired with Basilius, 541.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Northumberland, the fifth of the Heptarchy, by Ida, 547; and it included the present six northern counties, Cumberland, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, Northumberland, Westmore-

land, with part of Scotland, as far as the frith of Forth. Soon after its establishment, great jealousy prevailed among the five rival states; which gave the remaining Britons a peace of some years' duration.

Restoration of Armenia. This state, consisting of the country between the Black sea and Caspian, became independent of the eastern empire, 552, and being again under its own kings, established Christian worship with peculiar forms. Following the opinions of Eutyches, they owned but one nature in Jesus Christ; and when they spoke of the hypostatical union, meant that he is perfect God and perfect man, without mixture. They had a high esteem for a book called the little Gospel, which treats of the Saviour's infancy. Such as still call themselves Armenians, have a pa-

triarch over the archbishops and other clergy; and their monks follow the rules of St. Basil.

Fall of the Ostrogoths. Totila, their last king, who had been often harassed by Belisarius, was finally overthrown by Narses, another general of Justinian. He was escaping from the field of battle, when a party of Gepidæ, ignorant of his quality, ran him through the body with a lance. Thus ended, 554, the Gothic empire in Italy, which had endured seventy-eight years from the conquest by Odoacer; and the country was again united to the eastern empire, and governed by viceroys sent from Constantinople. It was divided into archonships or dukedoms, having one, the exarchate of Ravenna, superior in power to the rest.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Belisarius. The reign of Justinian owed much of its lustre to this eminent general, who repelled the constant assaults of the barbarians upon the expiring Roman empire. When disgraced for a supposed conspiracy against his master, it has been said that, blind and aged, he was compelled to beg his bread in the streets of the city he had saved.

Simplicius, the Greek philosopher, born in Cilicia, tried to unite the stoic and platonic doctrines with the peripatetic, in his valuable commentary on the *Enchiridion* of Epictetus. On apprehension of Justinian's persecution of the philosophers of Constantinople, he fled to the court of Chosroes, king of Persia, who was a distinguished patron of learned men.

Cassiodorus, distinguished as a statesman, orator, historian, and divine, was of a noble family in Calabria; and upon the impending dissolution of the Gothic kingdom in Italy, he retired to a monastery of his own foundation near Squillace, his native town; where he lived to the age of ninety-six, and wrote twelve books of public epistles, which though quaint,

give a curious insight into the manners of the author's age.

St. Benedict, after receiving a liberal education at Rome, retired at the age of 16 to Subiaco, and passed his days in a cavern. No one visited him but his friend St. Romanus, who used to descend to him by a rope, and to supply him with provisions. Having been chosen by some neighbouring monks as their abbot, he quitted their society to found a monastery on a stricter plan of discipline; and so rapidly did his admirers increase, that in a short space of time he established no less than twelve monastic houses. But his most celebrated foundation was on mount Cassino, where had been a temple of Apollo; and the people of which place he converted to Christianity. There he instituted his Order, which in time extended all over Europe. His monks were obliged to perform their devotions seven times in the day; to walk at all times in pairs; to fast during Lent till six in the evening; and to be silent at meals. Pope John XXII., who died in 1334, found that, since the first rise of the Benedictine order, there had

been of it twenty-four popes, 200 cardinals, 7000 archbishops, 15,000 bishops, 127 kings and queens, 15,000 abbots, and 37,000 monasteries. The tenet of Benedict which has occa-

sioned more stir than any other, refers to the celibacy of the clergy, which he strictly enjoined ; whence the modern application of the term *benedict* to bachelors.

SECTION V.

JUSTIN II., EMPEROR OF THE EAST.

565 TO 578—13 YEARS.

Justin II., nephew of Justinian, was an indolent prince ; and there is little recorded of his reign beyond the conspiracy of his own empress Sophia, who with the aid of Tiberius, a Thracian soldier, seized the throne, 578.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Settlement of the Lombards in Italy. The Lombards, a Scandinavian race, had been allowed by Justinian to settle in Pannonia ; and the eunuch general Narses, minister of Justin II., hoping to obtain the throne by their means, secretly invited them to take up their abode in North Italy. They accordingly came with their king Alboin, 568 ; and the affrighted inhabitants hastily quitted their towns, and took refuge amongst the founders of Venice. The Lombard kingdom in Italy endured 200 years : its seat of government was at first Milan, and in 752 Ravenna.

Birth of Mahomet. The founder of the Saracenic empire was born at Mecca 571, of the tribe of Koreish, illustrious among their countrymen as guardians of the temple of Caaba at Mecca, built, as the Mahometans affirm, by Abraham and his son Ish-

mael, the father of the Arabians. It had long served as the place of worship of the idolatrous Arabs, who had 360 images therein, according to the days of the Arabic year. The building still exists ; and has in it a black stone, affirmed to have been placed there by the angel Gabriel, and to remove which would be the cause of great calamity to the descendants of Ishmael.

Foundation of the Kingdom of East Anglia, the sixth of the Heptarchy, by Uffa in 575 ; it included Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and the isle of Ely.

Anchors invented by the Syrians 578. The largest anchor of a first-rate man-of-war in our day weighs four tons ; and this immense mass consists of plates of iron beaten together while hot.

SECTION VI.

THE FORTY-FOUR YEARS PRECEDING THE HEGIRA.

578 TO 622—44 YEARS.

The sway of the usurper Tiberius II. continued for four years. The eastern empire was next held by Mauritius, and in 602 by Phocas, and by Heraclius in 610. The only events of importance in the two latter reigns were the concession of great privileges to the bishops of Rome by Phocas, 606, whereon

the temporal power of the hierarchy may be said to have been founded ; and the flight of Mahomet, which occurred in the thirteenth year of Heraclius.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Rise of the Karaites. This sect of the Jews arose 580, and obtained its name from Kara, the Chaldee term for Scripture, because it ventured to attack the traditions of the Talmud, and to declare the written word of Scripture sufficient. Many Karaites still live in Poland, Crim Tartary, Egypt, and Persia, and are accounted men of the best learning and greatest probity amongst the Jewish people. In contradistinction to the rest of the Jews, who perform their public worship in the Hebrew tongue, the Karaites use the language of the state in which they dwell.

The Kingdom of Mercia founded (being the seventh of the Heptarchy) by Creda, 582. It included the seventeen counties of Herefordshire, Cheshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Leicestershire, Warwickshire, Derbyshire, Gloucestershire, Nottinghamshire, Rutland, Worcestershire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Norfolk, Bedfordshire, Lincolnshire, Huntingdonshire, and great part of Herts. The provincial Britons were now confined within narrow bounds ; but before they would yield the remainder of their country to the enemy, they resolved to try the event of a fight. Assisted by the Angles (a Saxon tribe apparently belonging to no distinct portion of the Heptarchy), a severe contest ensued at Woden's, Bearth (Wansdike), in Wiltshire, in which the Saxons were defeated ; but the Britons were soon after compelled by the Scots to take refuge in the moun-

tains of Wales, where they were mingled with the rude inhabitants, and became the progenitors of the modern Welch.

The Kingdom of Gascony founded, in the south-west of Francia, by the Vascones, 593. The people, whom the French call Basques at this day, were once celebrated for vainglorious boasting ; and hence the term *gasconade*.

Assumption of the Title of Pope. Boniface III., bishop of Rome, was the first who assumed the title of Catholic Father of the Christian Church, 606. The title Papa, or Father, which we translate Pope, has been improperly applied to the bishops of Rome precedent to Boniface : those prelates who had held office by authority of the Sacred College, were only honoured with numerals to their names ; and none were called Papas before Boniface III. Pretended miracles were very generally practised at this period, and for a century afterwards, by the Romish clergy, to convert the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and Alans, who, perhaps, without powerful measures, could not be induced to renounce their ancient superstitions. The injury, however, of this course to Christianity has been most serious ; and succeeded as it was by the introduction of traditions as appendages to Holy Writ, and of vain ceremonies and rites, the final issue was a division of the Church, first into the Latin and Greek hierarchies, and then into the parties of Catholic and Protestant.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Augustine, the apostle of the English, was sent by Gregory I. of Rome to Britain, 597, and was well received by Ethelbert, king of Kent, who was baptized by him, together with 10,000 of his subjects, in one day. Ethelbert gave the monk a residence at Dorovernum, now Can-

terbury, and Gregory thereon constituted him an archbishop. Thus raised to spiritual power, Augustine made an attempt to bring the bishops of Wales, who were of the stock of the aboriginal Britons, under the authority of Rome ; but after several conferences with them and with the

monks of Bangor, the authority of the Sacred College was rejected. Augustine's own report to the bishop of Rome of his having restored a blind man to sight, is in accordance with the numerous statements which have been handed down of his supposed miraculous powers.

St. Columba, a native of Ireland, founded the monastery and school of *St. Icolmkill*, on the isle of *Druids*, one of the *Hebrides*, 580 ; a famous seminary, in which the barbarous clans of the Scots obtained their earliest knowledge of both science and Christianity. The island received from that period the Hebrew name of *Iona*, or *dove* (in Latin, *columba*), and also *Icolmkill*, or *Columba's cell*. It was after a visit to this spot in the eighteenth century that *Dr. Johnson* thus eloquently wrote : 'We were now treading that illustrious island, which

was once the luminary of the Caledonian regions, whence savage clans and roving barbarians derived the benefits of knowledge, and the blessings of religion. To abstract the mind from all local emotion would be impossible if it were endeavoured, and would be foolish if it were possible. Whatever withdraws us from the power of our senses, whatever makes the past, the distant, or the future, predominate over the present, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. Far from me and from my friends be such frigid philosophy, as may conduct us, indifferent and unmoved, over any ground which has been dignified by wisdom, bravery, or virtue. The man is little to be envied, whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of *Marathon*, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of *Iona*.'

PERIOD THE NINTH.

From the Hegira to the Fall of the Heptarchy.

622 TO 828—206 YEARS.

SECTION I.

MAHOMET, FOUNDER OF THE SARACENIC EMPIRE.

622 TO 632—10 YEARS.

THE birth and family of this extraordinary person have been already mentioned. Being early left an orphan, he was committed to the instruction of the monks of the neighbouring monastery of *St. Catherine*, on mount *Sinai* ; and at twenty-five he became the factor of *Cadigha*, a rich widow, who made him her husband, and enabled him to acquire property as a merchant. But a disposition to religious contemplation attended him from his youth ; and becoming inspired with the notion of forming a new faith, he began to put on the appearance of sanctity, by retiring every morning to a cave, wherein he continued in meditation all the day. It was in 609, and in the fortieth year of his age, that he opened his pretended mission ; and his first convert was his wife, to whom he communicated that the angel *Gabriel* had declared him the prophet of God. His proselytes, in the first instance, were few, but they included his faithful servant *Seid*, the ardent and courageous *Ali*, and the

respectable Abubeker. All these were privately instructed in the tenets of Islamism, the fundamental doctrine of which was, 'Thère is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet.' Its precepts were pretended to be successive communications of the Divine will by the means of Gabriel; and of these, collected and written by his disciples, was composed the celebrated Koran (in Arabic, *the book*). In the fourth year of his mission, assembling his kindred of the race of Hashem at a banquet, he openly announced to them his prophetic errand, and asked who would be his vizier? No answer was returned, until the young Ali, with all the fire of enthusiasm, accepted the office. He made, however, but little further progress; and when, in the tenth year of his mission, he lost his faithful Cadigha, he became so exposed to the enmity of the Koreishites, that he found it necessary to seek the protection of his uncle at Tayif. The contagious nature of enthusiasm was strikingly exemplified by his success in gaining proselytes among the numerous pilgrims to the Caaba. About this time his pretended journey to Heaven on his beast Al-borak, under the protection of Gabriel, is dated. The twelfth year of his mission was signalized by the conversion of the inhabitants of Medina; which so exasperated his enemies at Mecca, that his assassination was determined upon. Aware of his danger, he fled, and with some difficulty reached Medina; an event which, under the name of *Hegira*, or flight, has been rendered memorable as the point of time whence the Mahometans date. Thus the 16th of June, 622, the day of the flight, was the first day of their first lunar year. The impostor was received with all possible respect at Medina; and soon after married Ayesha, the daughter of Abubeker. His followers rapidly increased; and he now openly declared his resolution to destroy idolatry, and propagate his religion by the sword. He employed the love of plunder, and the promise of a voluptuous paradise, as incentives to the supporters of his cause; and such offers became irresistibly attractive. Several contests with the Koreishites, and even the Jews, followed; but Mahomet baffled all the attempts against him, and the mask of sanctity being no longer necessary, indulged his sensual passions without scruple or decorum. An imprudent breach of truce on the part of his tribe, the Koreish, led to the impostor's conquest of Mecca; but though he went so far as to destroy the idols of the Caaba, he, with good policy, spared the sacred black stone, now a renewed object of veneration in consequence of his own holy touch. The conquest of the other tribes of Arabia followed; and at the head of a numerous and enthusiastic host, he determined to anticipate the hostile designs of the emperor Heraclius. He accordingly declared war against that sovereign; but after leading an army to the Syrian frontier, retired. Resolved to be content with the sovereignty of Arabia, he wholly suppressed idolatry, and suffered his Christian subjects to exercise their worship unmolested, on payment of tribute. In the tenth year of the *hegira*, he performed a valedictory pilgrimage to Mecca, on which occasion he was accompanied by 90,000 pilgrims; and the ceremonial which he observed at the sacred city, has served as a model to the pilgrimages of succeeding ages. Mahomet did not long survive his return to Medina; his health had been gradually declining, in consequence of poison administered to him by a Jewess, in his favourite dish, a shoulder of mutton, with a view of trying his prophetic character; but a fever proved the immediate cause of his death. He expired in the arms of his favourite, Ayesha, at the age of sixty-three; and at that trying moment seemed to display a real faith in his mission, and to be comforted by the consciousness of having conferred great benefits on mankind. Of all his children, his daughter Fatima, married to Ali, alone survived him.

A Mahometan, amongst other observances, must drink no wine, nor strong drink; and must wash himself thrice a day, imitating the ceremony, if in a place

where water cannot be found, by taking up the dust of the ground. If he die in battle for his country or religion, he is promised instant admission into paradise. He must kill his own animal food, and that with a knife extremely well sharpened, to prevent the suffering of the victim. He is allowed to eat, in case of necessity, of any animal killed by the Jews, but not of one killed by the Christians, lest it should have been stifled. The empire of Mahomet is called Saracenic, from the Arabic word *saharu*, a desert; because Arabia is more or less such.

CHIEF EVENT.

Era of the Hegira. As the Mahometan year consists but of 354 days, the mode of reckoning from the hegira is at variance with the course of the seasons; and a little more than three years is gained in a century. For instance; the year 1251 of that epoch began April 29, 1835, and ended April 17, 1836. It will therefore be necessary to subtract three years from every hundred, before it can be reduced to the Christian era. Thus, if we wish to find the Christian year for 1251 of the Mahometans, take three for each century therefrom, say thirty-seven, which leaves 1214, and thereto add the year of the hegira, 622, and the result will be 1836.

EMINENT PERSON.

Isidorus, bishop of Seville, was the first who used music in the service of the church; and the Roman catholics have placed him among the saints of their calendar.

SECTION II.

ABUBEKER, KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

632 TO 634—2 YEARS.

Abubeker. Upon the death of Mahomet, Ali, his son-in-law, had expected to succeed; but he offered no opposition to Abubeker, the prophet's father-in-law. The people having been led to believe that *the prophet* could not die, the greatest consternation prevailed when it was alleged that his body was already putrid. 'The apostle of God,' cried Omar, 'is not dead; he is only gone for a season, as Moses the son of Amram was gone from the people of Israel forty days, and then returned to them again!' He even threatened to cut off the hands and feet of such as should dare to affirm he was no more; and called on all to regard Abubeker, the father-in-law of the prophet, as his temporary successor. Abubeker was the first to assume the title of kaliph, a term implying both vicar and successor; taking upon him, as the prophet had done, the office of chief-priest, as well as that of temporal monarch. Nothing could exceed the modesty of the new ruler. Highly venerated by the people, because he had been the companion of Mahomet in his flight, they saw with admiration his labours for the public welfare, and deeply lamented his death.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Aidan, bishop of Lindisfern, who converted the people under Ida, king of Northumberland, to Christianity. *Theophylact*, of Constantinople, one of the best of the late Greek writers, is well known for his epistles, moral, rural, and amatory.

SECTION III.

OMAR, KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

634 TO 645—11 YEARS.

Omar declared himself 'kaliph of the kaliph of the apostle of God;' whereon the people objected to this lengthened title, and with one voice saluted him 'Emperor of the believers,' a title which descended to his successors by a kind of incontestable right. *Omar* took Jerusalem after an obstinate siege; while his general, *Sad*, added Persia to his dominions. Egypt was next attacked; and the taking of Alexandria was marked by the destruction of its celebrated library by the Saracen general *Amrou*. During the reign of *Omar*, who was stabbed at Medina by a Persian slave, the Mahometans conquered 36,000 towns, destroyed 4000 Christian temples, and built 1400 mosques; adding to their empire nearly the whole northern coast of Africa. *Omar* would not permit his son to succeed him; but declared the throne to be henceforth elective.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Fall of the Middle Persian Empire. *Yezdegird III.*, grandson of *Chosroes*, succeeded to the Persian throne, 632, and was, in two years after, attacked by a powerful Saracen army under *Sad*, *Omar's* general. The battle lasted three days and nights; and the Saracens being victorious, *Yezdegird* fled into Chorasán, where he ruled over a petty province nineteen years. Persia was thereupon added to Arabia, and continued a part of the Saracenic empire till the decline of the latter power, and the rise of the Monguls.

Judæa made a Saracen Province. In 637 *Amrou* took Jerusalem; and in six years after, the small temple erected upon the ruins of that which fell in the siege of *Titus*, was changed into a mosque, the cross of our Lord

being carried away as a relic to Medina.

Destruction of the Alexandrian Library. This barbaric deed of *Amrou* occurred 641; than which no event tended more effectually to produce the ignorance of what are deservedly called the dark ages. This repertory contained a copy of every published work of the civilized world, whether Egyptian, Jewish, Grecian, Roman, Phœnician, Punic, Chaldaic, Syriac, or Persian; so that, with the exception of the Holy Scriptures, and the comparatively few Greek and Latin books we now possess, and which were saved by the monastic establishments, all the humane and physical learning of the ancients perished beyond the power of restoration.

EMINENT PERSON.

Aaron, a physician of Alexandria, who wrote in Syriac, and is the first who makes mention of smallpox and measles; diseases which, he says,

were introduced into Egypt by the Arabians, in their conquest of the Egyptians, 641.

SECTION IV.

OTHMAN, KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

645 TO 657—12 YEARS.

Othman commenced his reign by the capture of Cyprus and Rhodes, and the defeat of *Constans II.*, the eastern emperor, in a naval engagement on the

coast of Lycia. But while thus successful abroad, plots were contriving at home for his destruction. He was accused of having unjustly removed Amrou from the government of Egypt, and Sad from his high post in the army; and it was further alleged, that he had presumed to sit on *the top of Mahomet's pulpit*, whereas Abubeker and Omar had not dared to go higher than *the steps*. A body of rebels, incited by Ayesha, Mahomet's widow, marched therefore to Medina; and having murdered the emperor in his palace, threw his body into a hole without any funeral solemnity.

CHIEF EVENT.

First Danish descent on Britain. | newly-formed Saxon kingdoms of Britain for the first time, 653.
The Dani, inhabitants of the modern Denmark, made a descent upon the

SECTION V.

ALI, KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

657 TO 662—5 YEARS.

Ali, whose wife was the only child of Mahomet, was willingly received as kaliph after Othman. Though indolent and unambitious, he possessed a strength and courage that induced the Arabs to call him 'the lion of God.' As Ayesha had caused the death of Othman, to place her favourite Telha, in his room, she was infuriated on hearing that Ali was proclaimed; and this Telha and one Zobeir, while the kaliph was on a pilgrimage to Mecca, raised an army to dethrone him, Ayesha herself, mounted on a camel, taking the first command. At Basra, Ali took her prisoner; and the only remarkable effort made by her troops was in defence of her person. Seventy men, who held her camel by the bridle, had their hands cut off successively; and the pavilion in which she sat was so full of darts and arrows, that it resembled a porcupine. Ali had just defeated the conspirators, when he heard that Moawiyah had declared himself kaliph in Syria, at the head of 120,000 rebels. These he attacked with 80,000 men; but when he had lost twenty-six officers, who had been contemporary with the prophet, and were therefore dignified with the title of *companions*, he challenged Moawiyah to single fight. Amrou, the conqueror of Africa, finding that Moawiyah, under whom he served, had declined the combat, on account of the known strength of Ali, resorted to stratagem to deter the army of the kaliph. Ordering his men to fix copies of the koran to the points of their lances, he made them rush among the enemy, exclaiming, 'This absolutely prohibits the effusion of Moslem blood!' Ali's troops thereupon threw down their arms; and the kaliph, on agreeing to resign his power, was allowed to retire, accompanied by his soldiery. On reaching Cufa, 12,000 of his men pretending to be offended by his compliance with the terms of the enemy, revolted, and with much difficulty were put down. Such as escaped on this occasion joined the friends of Ayesha; and under the title of Kharejites, or rebels, appeared soon after 25,000 strong. A battle ensued near Bagdad, in which Ali routed the revolted with vast slaughter; whereon the insurgents hired an assassin, who killed the kaliph with a poisoned weapon.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Pilgrimage to Mecca. Mahomet's celebrated visit to the temple of the Caaba, which in his youth he had guarded as a pagan devotee, was imitated by all the believers in his mission, now that it had become the place of his sepulture. He had too much consideration for the prejudices of his subjects to do away with the sacred claims of an edifice, which all acknowledged to have been placed where it stands by the hands of angels: he therefore abolished its pagan only to supply it with newly-ordained rites, which he affirmed to be the full completion of the ancient religion of the Caaba, in the manner Christianity became that of Judaism. All Moslems, or true believers, have been required by an edict of Ali, whatever their distance from Mecca, to make a visit thither once in their lives. The labours undergone by pilgrims in crossing trackless deserts, with a burning sun above and a pestilential air around them, thus to pay their devotions at the shrine of the prophet, are such as frequently to occasion the loss of life, and most commonly that of sight, or general health. 'I had viewed the departure of the caravan from Cairo (observes Mr. Hope) as a species of public rejoicing. The whole of the night which preceded the raising

of the tents, the camp, resplendent with the light of millions of lamps, and re-echoing with the sounds of thousands of musical instruments, seemed the special abode of mirth and pleasure; and on the ensuing morning, the pilgrims fresh, gay, full of ardour, and prancing along the road, looked like a procession of the elect going to take possession of Paradise. Alas! how different the appearance of this same caravan, after a long and fatiguing march across the desert, on its arrival at Mekkah! Wan, pale, worn out with toil and thirst, incrustated with a thick coat of dust and perspiration, the hadjees who composed it seemed scarce able to crawl to the place of their destination. One had lost an eye, another become subject to spasmodic movements, and all so altered by their sufferings, that they were obliged to syllable their names ere I could bring their persons to my recollection. The end of their journey looked like that of their earthly existence; or rather, one might have fancied their bodies already smitten by the spirit of the desert, and their ghosts come disembodied to accomplish their vow!' *Organs were first used in the Christian churches of the east, and in Italy, 660.*

SECTION VI.

MOAWIYAH, KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

(*First of the House of Ommyyah.*)

662 to 680—18 YEARS.

Moawiyah. Ali had appointed his son Hassan to succeed him; but that youth, fearing to contend with Moawiyah, chief of the family of Ommyyah, gave up his claim, and the new kaliph was soon enabled to put down the Kharejites, who were as opposed to him as they had been to Ali. Moawiyah sent his son Yezid to besiege the eastern emperor, Constantine IV., in his capital, 669; and four of the companions, although very aged, accompanied the expedition: this was undertaken in consequence of Mahomet's promise, that all the sins of that army should be forgiven, which should conquer the first city of Cæsarea. All that we know of the affair is that it did not succeed, and

that Abu Ayub, a companion, fell, whose tomb is still held by the Moslems in such veneration, that the Turkish sultans gird their swords on it at their accession. The Saracens next attacked the Turks, who had invaded Bukharia, and nearly captured their queen; one of whose sandals they tore from her person, and valued at 2000 dinars. Constantine was, in the end, compelled to pay tribute by Moawiyah, who died soon after at Damascus his capital.

CHIEF EVENT.

Glass was invented by a bishop of | to England afterwards by a Benedictine monk.
the eastern church, 663, and brought |

SECTION VII.

YEZID, MERWAN, AND ABDALMALEC, KALIPHS OF THE SARACENS.

680 TO 706—26 YEARS.

Yezid, son of Moawiyah, expecting opposition from Hosein the son of Ali, and from Abdallah the ambitious general of the Kharejites, found means to entrap the former, who was beheaded by one of his generals. Abdallah was checked by this event; but his interest with the people of Medina was so great, that when Yezid sent an order thither for his arrest, an insurrection was raised in his favour. A large party assembled in the chief mosque; and the first approaching the steps of the pulpit exclaimed, 'I lay aside Yezid as I do this turban,' and immediately threw his turban on the ground: another said, 'I put away Yezid as I do this shoe,' whereon a vast heap of shoes and turbans was formed upon the spot. When Yezid heard of this outrage, he sacked Medina, with tremendous slaughter; a circumstance which, though it secured his throne, caused the kaliph to be considered an impious man, since the prophet had declared 'the wrath of God should visit him who did violence to Medina.' Yezid, however, seems to have cared little for this solemn denunciation; and whilst laying siege to Mecca, whither Abdallah had fled, died, aged thirty-nine, 683.—*Merwan*. As Merwan was at the head of the Koreish, a vast number inclined to him, and proclaimed him kaliph at Damascus, while another faction proclaimed Abdallah at Mecca; so that there were two kaliphs at once. Merwan, after some skirmishes with his rival, was poisoned by his wife Zeinab, the widow of Moawiyah, in the first year of his reign, because he had promised that her son Caled should succeed him, whereas he nominated his own son, Abdalmalec.—*Abdalmalec* having put down all minor rivals, directed his general, Al Hejaj, to attack Abdallah in Mecca; and the latter being unprepared, great desertion took place among his troops. His mother, daughter of the kaliph Abubeker, encouraged him to trust in the prophet and drive out the invader; whereon he defended the city, to the amazement of the besiegers, for ten days; though nearly destitute of arms, troops, and fortifications. At last he made a furious sally upon the enemy, destroyed many of them with his own hand, and was killed fighting valiantly. Al Hejaj ordered his body to be affixed to a cross; and received from Abdalmalec the governorship of Medina, in reward for his services. The coining of money by Abdalmalec, 698, gave offence to Justinian II., the eastern emperor, whose money had hitherto passed in Arabia; and who ceased not to harass the dominions of the kaliph by incursions, on that account, until the close of his reign.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Laws of Ina. Ina, king of Wessex, inherited the military virtues of his predecessors, and added to them the more valuable ones of justice, policy, and prudence. He allowed the British proprietors to retain their lands, encouraged marriages and alliances between them and the Saxons, and gave them the privilege of being governed by the same laws. These laws, which he promulgated 692, became the standard code of the whole Heptarchy for some years; and though Ina was disturbed by insurrections at home, his reign endured thirty-seven years. In his old age, he made a pilgrimage to Rome; and after his return, shut himself up in a monastery, where he died.

Rise of Bulgaria. The nomad tribe of Bulgarians, who had long inhabited the plains of Sarmatia, on the

banks of the Volga, passed the Danube, 650, and entered Lower Mysia, a country then belonging to the eastern empire. The Greco-Romans made various attempts to expel them; but at length Justinian II., 686, was obliged to cede that portion of his dominions to them, and they thereupon named it Bulgaria, and appointed themselves a king.

Temporal Power of the Pope established. At the restoration of Justinian II., who had been banished by his subjects, the Pope was first invested by him with temporal power, by the grant of a province near Rome, over which he had, for himself and his successors, absolute dominion. Before this, the popes were prelates only; they have ever since been both prelates and kings.

EMINENT PERSON.

Pepin d'Heristal, mayor of the palace to the king of France, obtained more power than the monarch; and as his office was made hereditary, it be-

came clear that the mayors would soon supplant the kings. He died in the third year of Dagobert II., 714.

SECTION VIII.

AL WALID, SOLIMAN, OMAR II., YEZID II., AND HESHAM, KALIPHS OF THE SARACENS.

706 TO 747—41 YEARS.

Al Walid I. commenced his reign by severely beating the Turks, and levying contributions on them in Great Bukharia. In 712 he took Tyana from Philip Bardanes, the eastern emperor; while his generals, Musa and Tarik, crossing from the new colony in Morocco to the opposite shore, added Spain to the Saracenic empire, by the victory of Xeres. Antioch at the same juncture fell to another Moslemin general; and Al Walid was building a large fleet to sail against Constantinople, when death seized him, 718.—*Soliman* succeeded his brother, in whose brief reign nothing occurred beyond the siege of Constantinople, which his general Moslema was compelled to raise, after losing before it 120,000 men, and reducing his soldiers to the extremity of eating their comrades' dead bodies. He died 721, of indigestion; and no wonder, if what is said of him be true,—namely, that he daily devoured one hundred pounds of meat at his dinner, after eating three roasted lambs for his breakfast!—*Omar II.* was an amiable man, and suppressed the

usual malediction against the house of Ali, pronounced by the house of Ommyyah in their prayers. His cousin Yezid, governor of Persia, poisoned him 724; and when found dying by his general Moslema, he had not a change of linen left him.—*Yezid II.* did not long enjoy his ill-gotten dignity; for his favourite concubine, Hababah, being accidentally choked by a grape-stone, he took it so much to heart, that he died of grief, 727.—*Hesham*, brother of Yezid, turned his arms against the Turks, who were daily coming closer to Europe, and drove them back to the Caspian. His general, Abdalrahman, also entered France from Spain, and, with 400,000 men ravaged the country as far as Tours, where his army was stopped by Charles Martel. Hesham after a second great defeat of the Turks, who had entered Armenia, died much respected, 747.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Spain conquered by the Moors. The Saracens having obtained possession of the whole northern coast of Africa by their final conquest, in 709, of the ancient country of the Mauri, the modern Morocco (whence their name of Moors), it was in 712 that Count Julian, a malcontent nobleman under Roderic, the Gothic king of Spain, secretly invited Tarik, their general, to cross the Mediterranean with as many troops as he could muster, and seize the throne. Tarik and his colleague, Musa, landed on the rocks of the modern Gibraltar, so called from the former, *gibel el-tarik*, or the mountain of Tarik. The Moors reaching Xeres by rapid marches, came upon Roderic by surprise; and as he was attempting to escape from the fight, the unfortunate Goth was drowned in the river Guadalquivir. The empire of the Visigoths in Spain, which had stood 300 years was thus overthrown; and the chief portion of that peninsula became a Saracen colony. A remnant of the Goths, however, escaping to the north of the country, kept possession of Asturias and Biscay, under the command of Don Pelagio, a patriotic noble, who, by his prudence and skill, laid the foundation of the modern Spanish monarchy; and as these provinces were its cradle, vast privileges, which they retain to this day, were granted to them by the exiled chieftain. Amongst other immunities, they enjoy a freedom from the general taxation of the country, and are even permitted to fix the im-

posts themselves. This will, in a measure, account for the difference in character between the Northern Spaniards, and those in the heart and south of the country; and will explain how the monarch may be adored by the Asturians and Basques, while he is rejected by all his other subjects. He has but to uphold their ancient rights, and they will fight for him to the last; as in the recent case of Don Carlos. The northern Spaniards have been, from Pelagio's time, the freest people on earth, however the rest of their countrymen may have been shackled at various periods of their history.

Changes in the Eastern Empire. Justinian II. who had been restored to his throne by his Bulgarian allies, was eventually murdered, 711, by Philip Bardanes, who ascended the throne, and was followed by Anastasius II. and Theodosius III. On the death of the latter, 717, Leo III., a native of Isauria, began the Isaurian dynasty. His father exercised the humble calling of a cobbler; but Leo, entering the army, rose to be one of the emperor's body-guard; and so great was his interest, that, when Theodosius died, the army unanimously declared him sovereign.

The Papal Nuncio first appointed, 735. This officer of the pope acts as his ambassador in secular matters.

A Plague ravaged Europe and Asia, beginning in 746, and enduring for three years, without the power of mitigation.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Charles Martel, mayor of the palace, and son of Pepin d'Heristal, put an end to the Merovingian race of French kings. He defeated Eudes, duke of Aquitaine, and made him tributary; but when the duke solicited him to join him against Abdalrahman, the Saracen general in Spain, who had entered France, and taken Bourdeaux, Charles met the common enemy near Tours, 732, killed him, and drove his forces back into the peninsula. He received the *sobriquet* of Martel, or hammer, on account of this victory, which probably prevented the establishment of an immoveable Moslem power in the very heart of Europe. The French kings, from this time till long after, were called *fuincans*, or lazy, having no power.

St. Boniface, the converter of the Germans to Christianity, was born at Crediton, Devonshire; and going early to Rome, pope Zachary made him archbishop of Mentz. This high dignity, however, he resigned, to continue his labours in Friesland; where, with fifty monks, he was assassinated by the pagans, 755.

Bede, called the venerable, was a native of Wearmouth in England; and though pope Sergius invited him to Rome, he preferred severe study in Britain. He wrote an ecclesiastical history and other works in Latin, in an artless but elegant style; and many of his productions were ordered to be read as homilies in the churches.

SECTION IX.

MERWAN II., KALIPH OF THE SARACENS.

747 TO 752—5 YEARS.

Merwan II. On the death of Hesham, Merwan, governor of Mesopotamia, declared himself kaliph; and though opposed for a short time by others of the house of Ommiyah, he at length gained possession of Damascus, and was acknowledged sovereign by all Arabia. His reign was far from being a quiet one. Soliman, a descendant of Hesham, who had declared himself kaliph, had no sooner been defeated by him and compelled to fly, than at Cufa, and in Chorasán, strong parties were formed against him by the house of Al Abbas, which had sworn to exterminate that of Ommiyah. These Abassides at last declared Al Saffah, one of their own family, kaliph, by the title of Abul Abbas; and the insurgent being in arms at Cufa, Merwan attacked him there, but was defeated and fled to Egypt, where a brother of Abul Abbas assassinated him. Thus was the house of Ommiyah extinguished, and that of the Abassides founded, 752.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Succession of the Carolingian Dynasty. In 752, the Franks, assembled at Soissons, deposed Childeric III., the last of the Merovingian family, and elected Pepin, son of Charles Martel, to the throne. Pepin warred successfully against the Saxons, Saracens, and Lombards; and muni-

ficently repaid the favours he had received from pope Zachary. His house is called Carolingian, in honour of his son, Charlemagne.

The Ravenna Exarchate abolished. This stronghold of the eastern emperor in Italy was taken, 752, by Astolphus, king of the Lombards, who

was thereupon acknowledged king of the parent state was thus for ever Italy. The link in the chain that had broken.
 united the Greco-Roman empire with

EMINENT PERSON.

Damascenus, a father of the Christian church and spirited writer, was counsellor of state to the kaliphs, and though thus amongst the Moslems, became the firm advocate of the Roman hierarchy in the dispute about images; denouncing the emperor Leo III., and other *iconoclasts*, or image-breakers, as apostates, for turning the figures of the saints out of the churches.

SECTION X.

THE FIRST FOUR SARACEN KALIPHS OF THE HOUSE OF ABBAS.

752 TO 786—34 YEARS.

Al Saffah, during his brief reign, constituted Medina, instead of Damascus, the capital of the Saracenic empire, put to death numerous partisans of the house of Ommiyah, and stopped the incursions of Constantine V. in Syria. He died of the smallpox, 754. *Al Mansur*, his brother, had been two years on the throne, when Spain was severed from the kaliphate by the revolt of Abdalrahman, who began the famous kingdom of the Moors; soon after which Abdallah, the uncle of Al Mansur, proclaimed himself kaliph at Damascus, and was not put down without a most sanguinary contest. In 759 the Rawandians, a sect holding the metempsychosis as their doctrine, offered divine honours to the kaliph; but he, highly incensed at their impiety, ordered some of them to be imprisoned. These, being released by their companions, attacked the palace, and would have murdered the kaliph, but for the timely aid of Maan, a chief of the Ommiyah faction; whose generosity in thus saving the life of an Abasside, became a proverb amongst the Saracens. On escaping from this danger, Al Mansur, to show his hatred of the Arabs, determined on building a capital out of their peninsula; and accordingly founded, on the banks of the Tigris, the celebrated Bagdad, which was sufficiently advanced, in 768, for the removal of the court thither from Medina. This migration had the effect of weakening the Saracenic power; for the people of Arabia, considering themselves freed from subjection by the departure of the kaliph, returned to the mixed pastoral and military life which they had enjoyed for ages before the time of Mahomet, and in which they exult to this day. Al Mansur, being on his road to perform the pilgrimage to Mecca, 775, was seized with illness and died, his body arriving a corpse at the holy city. *Al Mohdi*, his son, succeeded, and was molested by the intrigues of the fanatical impostor Al Mohanna, who declared himself a prophet, and wore a veil over his face, lest his countenance should dazzle the eyes of beholders. He obtained extraordinary fame, by causing the appearance of a moon to rise out of a well for many nights together; and was enabled to raise a force to dethrone the kaliph. Al Mohdi, however, marched upon him unawares; and the impostor, retiring into one of his fortresses, poisoned all his family, and then threw himself into a tub of aquafortis. As his body was wholly consumed, and he had promised his followers that his soul should pass into the

form of an old man riding on a gray beast, and appear after a certain period to give them the earth for a possession, they expected his return for many years. In 781 the kaliph sent his son Haroun, afterwards known by the title of *al-raschid*, or the just, against the Greek empress, Irene, with an army of 95,000 men; whereon she agreed to a splendid annual tribute. Haroun was on his way home from Constantinople, when the sun, a little after its rising, totally lost its light without being eclipsed, and when neither fog nor dust was seen to obscure it. This frightful darkness continued till noon; and it has been supposed that a comet, of whose proportions and orbit we have no knowledge, and certainly not the moon, occasioned the phenomenon. In 785 Al Mohdi was undesignedly poisoned by his concubine, Hasanah, who had given to a rival in the harem a poisoned pear, which she unsuspectingly presented to the kaliph. *Al Hadi*, the elder son of Al Mohdi, had not reigned a year, when his vizier assassinated him, 786, and his younger brother Haroun ascended the throne.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Kaliphate of Cordova founded. The house of Ommiyah having now no chance against the aspiring race of Abbas, Abdalrahman, only heir-male of the line, quitted his native Arabia for Africa; and coming at length to Mauritania, perceived that, like Tarik, he might cross with effect into Spain, and wrest from the weak hands of the Abasside lieutenant the now flourishing Saracen province. Some attempts were made to oppose him; but his forces rapidly increased, and the Abasside general was defeated on the banks of the Guadalquivir, 756. Abdalrahman, now unanimously acknowledged kaliph, fixed his royal residence at Cordova; and then began those flourishing ages of Arabian gallantry and magnificence, which rendered the Moors of Spain superior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms. Agriculture and commerce began to prosper; the face of the country was changed from a scene of desolation to that of an eastern paradise; and the kingdom of Cordova became at once a populous and flourishing state, exceeding in riches, activity, and industry, every prior and subsequent era of Spanish history. The capital itself, as the seat of the Ommiyade kaliphs, was soon the centre of science, politeness, and luxury. Tilts, tournaments, and other costly shows, were long the darling pastimes of a wealthy and joyous people; and Cordova was the only kingdom in the west where geo-

metry, astronomy, and medicine, were regularly studied and practised. Music was no less honoured; and that architecture was greatly encouraged, we need no other proof than the relics still extant of the expensive fabrics reared by successive Moorish monarchs, whence we have borrowed our own Gothic style. In process of time, the royal library contained 600,000 volumes; and an university was founded at Cordova, which rose to the highest celebrity.

Rise of the Kingdom of Navarre. In 758, six hundred gentlemen, who had met without previous design at the tomb of John the Hermit, a religious devotee of the Pyrenees, having discoursed together upon the cruelty of the Moors, resolved to throw off their yoke; and having elected Don Garcia Ximenes their king, seized on the town of Ainsa, and a large tract of the surrounding country. Don Garcia Inigas, the successor of Ximenes, made great additions to the petty state, extending it as far as Biscay, and giving it the name of Navarre. There were thus two petty monarchies descended from Don Pelagio's remnant of the Goths, to contend against the Saracenic power in Spain.

Arabia restored to freedom. By the removal of the seat of government from Medina to Bagdad, the peninsula of Arabia recovered its liberty; for though nominally tributary to Bagdad, few sovereigns were ever strong enough to

exact the annual tax. From that day to the present, the Arabs of the desert have been subject to no rule, beyond a similar tax paid to the Turks, and with difficulty collected: and they, and their brethren of the towns, though opposed in character, and constantly disputing, unite against the common enemy, and appear invincible. All being soldiers on occasion, an army of 100,000 has often been assembled as if by magic influence: when they advance to battle, the hope of victory is in the front, and in the rear the assurance of a retreat. Their horses and camels, which in ten days can perform a march of 500 miles, disappear before the conqueror; the secret waters of the desert elude his search; and his victorious troops are consumed with thirst, hunger, and fatigue, in the pursuit of an invisible foe, who scorns his efforts, and safely reposes in the heart of the burning solitude. The Arabs have been poetically termed sons of the dust and of the cloud: the large parties forming the caravan are frequently

astonished to perceive, only at a short distance either before or behind, myriads of well-mounted Arabs suddenly approaching; and scarcely believe they have not dropped from above, or arisen from the sands below. This singular race must be regarded as twofold, the Bedouins or nomad tribes, who dwell in tents, as the Ishmaelites of old, and those of the towns, who have fixed habitations, and are looked upon with contempt by their roving brethren. In the oases, or fertile spots, of what is called Happy Arabia, the people perhaps merit this scorn, for the effeminacy induced upon them by the luxury of their soil and climate.

Fall of Lombardy. Charles of France, to whom pope Adrian had committed the protection of the holy see, captured Didier, the Lombard sovereign, in his old capital of Pavia, 774, and carried him prisoner to Rome. Lombardy was added to Charlemagne's dominions, after having existed little more than two centuries.

EMINENT PERSON.

Charlemagne. Charles I. succeeded to the throne of France upon the death of his father, Pepin, 768; and having freed Italy from the Lombards, and subdued Witikind, a famous chief of the Saxons, pope Leo III. crowned him emperor of the west at Rome, 800. In 807 he marched against the Saracens of Cordova; but on his return across the Pyrenees, the Gascons defeated him at Roncevaux, where fell, amongst a host of his bravest warriors, Orlando, or Roland, his nephew, whose fame has been blazoned by the romantic chroniclers of the Middle Ages, and whose fate has been the theme of many a poet's lay. Charles, after this, established the secret tribunal of Westphalia, a species of Inquisition, which was abolished by Charles V.; but it is more creditable

to him to have aided the Venetians, Genoese, and Florentines, in the promotion of commerce. The seat of his empire was Aix-la-Chapelle, where he died, 814. The empire of Charles, who merited the title of great for his enlightened policy, included the heart of Europe, every state excepting Britain acknowledging him its superior lord. His son, Louis I., succeeded to France, and his son Charles to Germany; but the provinces he had gained in Spain and Italy revolted soon after his death; and the vast empire he had constructed, fell to pieces with a rapidity equalled only by that which had marked its formation. His posterity held Germany till 880; at which time the respective princes resumed their independence, and rejected the Carolingian line.

SECTION XI.

HAROUN AL RASCHID, KALIPH OF BAGDAD.

786 TO 809—23 YEARS.

Haroun Al Raschid, or Aaron the just, appears to have been one of the wisest of the Saracen princes. Although his empire was reduced to the parts about Bagdad and the north coast of Africa, his people presaged a prosperous reign, from some divers having picked up his valuable seal-ring, which he had thrown into the Tigris lest Al Hadi should possess it. His most considerable exploits were against the eastern empire: Nicephorus, soon after his accession in 802, wrote to the kaliph an insolent letter, demanding a return of all the money extorted from Irene; whereon Haroun advanced towards Constantinople. While on the march thither, the emperor sent the kaliph a present of several fine swords; and Haroun, understanding by this that Nicephorus was inclined to war, cut these weapons asunder, 'as if they had been so many radishes,' with his sword Samsamha, without the slightest injury to that scimitar: an exploit which speaks as well for the kaliph's strength of arm, as for the temper of Samsamha. Nicephorus soon after attacked the kaliphate, but lost 40,000 men, and was wounded thrice in an action with Haroun near Heraclea. While the kaliph was on his march against some rebels in Chorasán, 809, he was suddenly seized with an illness which forced him to resign the command of his large army to his son Al Mamun. Lying sick in the town of Rakka, he dreamed that an arm was stretched over his head, in the hand of which was some red earth; while a voice exclaimed, 'Haroun, see the earth wherein thou shalt be buried!' His physician assured him it was a delusion, and he again headed his troops, but in vain; for his distemper increasing, he was compelled to retire to Tus. 'Gabriel,' said the kaliph to his physician, 'send some one for a handful of the earth of this town;' and when his chief eunuch, Mesrour, brought it, Haroun cried out, 'In truth this is the very earth, and the arm which I saw in my dream!' In three days after, he died, aged 47. Haroun's claim to the title of just must be regarded with much allowance for eastern notions of despotic justice. He was, however, a patron of learning, and caused the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to be translated into Arabic; and he sent a splendid embassy to Charlemagne, with a magnificent tent, a water-clock, an elephant, and the keys of the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, implying a permission for European pilgrims to visit it. The rigour of Haroun's character was shown in the ruin of the Bermecides, a family of noble Persian descent. Yahia, the head of it, had been his tutor; and of his four sons, the eldest was a successful general, and the second Haroun's vizier, Giaffar. The generosity, affability, and munificence of the Bermecides, rendered them the delight of all ranks; and Giaffar gave the kaliph so much satisfaction, that he married him to his sister, the princess Abassa. In some matters relative to this marriage, the vizier displeased Haroun; whereon the choleric Saracen ordered him to be put to death, and forbade that any one should again utter his name. Even during his last moments Haroun evinced a spirit of revenge; for a leader of the Chorasán rebels being brought into his presence, he said in a voice scarcely articulate, 'Kill him.' The popular character of the kaliph is well shown in the Arabian Night's Entertainments, wherein Haroun, his consort Zobeide, Giaffar, and Mesrour, are conspicuously mentioned.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Peter's Pence. Offa, king of Mercia, after a life of violence and irreligion, made a pilgrimage to Rome to re-establish his character; and when there, engaged to pay a yearly donation for the support of an English college in that city, to raise which he imposed, in 790, the tax of a penny on every house possessed of thirty pence a-year. This imposition, afterwards levied on all England, was denominated *Peter's-pence*, as being collected for the successor of St. Peter; and though conferred at first as a gift, it was afterwards claimed as a right by the Roman pontiffs. So large was the revenue from the tax, *temp.* Henry VIII., that it far exceeded the royal income. Offa was so important a

prince of the Heptarchy, as to obtain an alliance with Charlemagne, to whom he introduced Alcuinus. His stone coffin was dug up in Hemel-Hemstead churchyard, 1836, the inscription of his name being quite legible. On opening it, his bones were in distinct form: but they speedily crumbled into dust, on exposure to the air. His remains had thus lain in the soil of the ground (not in a vault) 1042 years.

The German Empire founded by Charlemagne, 800. It was at first styled Allmandy, from all sorts of people having composed its community; whence its present French name of *Allemagne*.

EMINENT PERSON.

Roland the Brave. The following is the most generally received story of Orlando. Deeply attached to the fair and excellent Hildegund, the young soldier, having pledged his troth, was summoned to a crusade against the pagan host. In his lamented absence, she heard that he was dead in battle. All her hopes of happiness appearing to be buried with him, she determined to renounce the world, and to take the veil. Scarcely was the solemn service

at an end, when a trumpet announced the return of Roland, who had been wounded, but was now restored to health. It was however too late: Hildegund lived a nun in the convent of Nonnenwerther; and he, in order to be near her melancholy dwelling, built a hermitage for his residence, on the spot where Rolandseck now stands. At her death Roland sought for fate in the dangers of the field, and was killed at the battle of Roncesvalles.

SECTION XII.

AL AMIN AND AL MAIMON, KALIPHS OF BAGDAD.

809 to 828.

Al Amin succeeded his father Haroun; but attempting to deprive his brother of the government of Chorasán, *Al Maimon* coined money as if kaliph, and officiated in the mosque, as Imaum. A contest soon ensued between the brothers, which ended in the siege of Bagdad by Thaher, the general of *Al Maimon*, and the death of *Al Amin*, 814. *Al Maimon* presented the courier who brought him the news of Thaher's success, with a million of dirrhem (100,000*l.* sterling), and received from him the ring or seal of the kaliphate, the sceptre, and imperial robe; he then appointed Thaher governor of Chorasán, by which that country was permanently separated from the Saracenic kingdom. *Al Maimon* was noted as an astronomer, and Greek scholar; he made observations on the obliquity of the ecliptic, caused a degree of the meridian to be measured, and ordered the *Magna Constructio* of Ptolemy to be

translated into Arabic, which, under its new title of *Almagest*, was long held in especial esteem by the judicial astrologers of the middle ages. During his reign took place the conquest of Sicily by the African Moslemius, and the destruction of the Heptarchy by Egbert.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Capture of Crete. The Moors of Cordova had long attempted to colonize Crete (from *Cres*, its first monarch), and had built forts on the island which they called, in Arabic, *Khandak*, whence they made frequent assaults on the inhabitants. At length, in 823, they obtained full possession of the country, which, from the forts in question, received the name of *Khandy*, now *Candia*. This fine spot in the Mediterranean is 300 miles long and 50 broad. It was the kingdom of the lawgiver *Minos*: the Spartans, Argives, and Athenians, afterwards sent colonies thither: and after the Moorish conquest, it fell successively into the power of the Eastern Empire, the Romans, Venetians, and Turks, the last of whom have had it from 1670 to the present day.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Leon. The renaſcent monarchy of Spain had been ſo augmented, 826, by the addition of Leon, Oviedo, Navarre, and Arragon, that, with the two

ancient provinces of Asturias and Biscay, the whole was now dignified with the title of the kingdom of Leon.

Rise of Denmark. Through the warlike abilities of *Regner Lodbrog*, Denmark became an independent sovereignty, 897. *Lodbrog* appears to have been not only a soldier, but a poet breathing forth stanzas in the fanatical style of the ancient sibyls; and he ranks high among the skalds, or joint poets and historians of Scandinavia. As a warrior, he is said to have invaded England, 793, and to have burned and plundered *Lindisfarne*, and slain its monks. He was called *Lodbrog*, because he wore rough culottes to conquer an enormous serpent, by which act he won his bride *Thora*; ‘in the straits of *Eizar* he poured out rivers of blood for the wolf,—the ocean was one wound,—and the raven waded in the gore of the slain.’—Such is the style in which his brother skalds have commemorated him.

PERIOD THE TENTH.

From the Fall of the Heptarchy to the Norman Conquest.

828 TO 1066—238 YEARS.

SECTION I.

EGBERT THE GREAT, KING OF ENGLAND.

828 TO 838—10 YEARS.

Egbert being of a more ancient line of the kings of *Wessex* than *Brithric*, who had the throne at the period of his birth, *Brithric* displayed much jealousy of him during his youth, and caused him to seek refuge at the court of *Charlemagne*. Entering into the army of the emperor, he acquired the accomplishments and enlarged views of the world, which afterwards enabled him to make

so shining a figure, and which induced him to labour at softening down the rudeness of the Anglo-Saxon character to the standard of that of the French. It was not long before his talents were called into full action. Brithric had married Eadburga, daughter of Offa, king of Mercia, an intriguing woman, who had accidentally poisoned her husband, in her attempt to kill his friend, at a banquet. The nobles lost no time in recalling Egbert, who was duly acknowledged king of Wessex, 800; and he who had seen Charlemagne wield the sceptre over a host of petty sovereignties, reduced to subjection by his valour, perceived at once the advantage that would result, from one boundary and one set of laws, to the British, whom nature had fenced in by the sea. He gave reins, therefore, to his ambition; and by the year 828 had obtained sufficient ascendancy over the other states of the heptarchy to be acknowledged sovereign of all Angle-land,—the people of the island having long been called *Angles* by foreign nations. Circumstances had paved the way for this event. It had long been the practice, amounting sometimes to a sacred feeling of duty, that the younger sons of the Anglo-Saxon kings, should retire into monasteries: and as monks must not marry, the original sovereign families were mostly extinct when Egbert became king of Wessex. As the only lineal descendant of Woden, a hero who had been deified by the ancient conquerors of the island, and from whom Hengist even had drawn his pedigree, he was regarded in a higher light than the other kings of the heptarchy, strangers as they were in blood to the original founders of the states; and even four of these were tributary to Mercia. When Mercia, therefore, had declared itself subject to Egbert, after the battle of Elandum in Wiltshire, he had little difficulty in bringing the rest under his authority. Thus, 400 years from the arrival of the Saxons in Britain, were the kingdoms of the heptarchy united into one great state, conflicting interests made to cease, and political bickerings silenced by the common love of country. Egbert had scarcely reposed after the labours of his great work, when the Danes landed, and ravaged the isle of Shepey, 832; but the active prince overthrew them both in Dorset and Devon, and they never again ventured to annoy him. Egbert died 838; and was buried at Winchester, which had been the seat of his government.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Piastus, a Polish wheelwright, having hospitably entertained two pilgrims during a famine which occurred at Cracow, just at the death of duke Popiel, 836, the strangers persuaded the people that he had powers superior to the common lot of mortals. Enthusiasm seized the populace; and *Piastus* was without ceremony declared

duke. So greatly was his memory esteemed, that the kings of Poland were to the last denominated *Piastes*.

Nennius, abbot of Bangor, who wrote a history of the Britons in Latin; *Agobard*, archbishop of Lyons, who wrote against Judaism; and *Albunazar*, the Arabian astrologer, whose works are still extant.

SECTION II.

ETHELWOLF, KING OF ENGLAND.

838 to 857—19 YEARS.

Ethelwolf began his reign by appointing his son, *Athelstan*, viceroy over Essex, Kent, and Sussex; an arrangement which had scarcely been effected, when the Danes landed at different points of the island, and committed great

ravages. Ceorle, governor of Devonshire, gave some hope to the people by routing one party, and Athelstan sank nine of their ships near Sandwich; nevertheless a body of them took up their winter-quarters in Thanet, and in the spring of 852, burned Canterbury, and advanced into the heart of Surrey. Though routed by prince Ethelbald at Okeley, they passed the ensuing winter in the island, and could not be removed for some years from Shepey, whence they every now and then issued, and plundered the surrounding country. The troubles of the kingdom hindered not Ethelwolf from making a pilgrimage to Rome; whither he carried his fourth and favourite son, Alfred, then six years old. On his way home he married Judith, daughter of the emperor Charles the Bald; but found, on landing in England, that his son Athelstan being dead, Ethelbald, his second son, was in arms against him. To prevent a civil war, he gave his undutiful child the western or most considerable portion of the kingdom, reserving to himself the eastern and more exposed part. Ethelwolf, after granting tithes to the clergy, died at Stambridge in Essex, and was buried at Steyning in Sussex.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Battle of Fontenoy. On the death of Louis I. of France, his sons quarrelled for the succession, and a battle was fought at Fontenoy, in Burgundy, 840, which was one of the most bloody in the records of history. Lothaire, the eldest, was defeated and fled to Italy, of which kingdom he became possessed, assuming the title of emperor of the west; Louis had Germany; and France fell to Charles's share.

Reduction of Wales. Roderick Mawr in 843 overthrew the petty kingdoms of Wales, and ruled over it as one state. At his death, 870, he divided it amongst his three sons; and the portions were called North Wales, South Wales, and Powis Land.

Grant of Tithes in England, 850. Ethelwolf, in this, imitated the kings of Mercia, who had instituted them soon after Charlemagne's grant of them in France, when that emperor made his famous quadripartite division of them; one to maintain the edifice of the church, the second to support the poor, the third the bishop, and the fourth the parochial clergy. Alfred and subsequent sovereigns enjoined a penalty for the non-payment of tithes: and this is as much as can be traced out with regard to their legal original. On their first introduction, every man might confer them on what priests he pleased, or upon the bishop; which latter dis-

tributed them amongst his diocesan clergy, the revenues of the church being then in common. This was called arbitrary consecration of tithes, and continued till the time of John; though, when dioceses were divided into parishes, the tithes of each parish were allotted to its own particular minister, excepting when the monks, or regular clergy, induced the people not to pay their dues to the secular or parochial clergy, but to bestow them on the convents and religious houses. Innocent III., in 1200, put an end to this system; and tithe from that day has been payable to the real parson, who may be either the incumbent, or the impropiator, lay or clerical, of the benefice. It is allowed that the payment of tithes in *kind*, that is one haycock out of ten, one fowl out of ten, and so on, is, in the main, both a discouragement to agriculture, and a very precarious income for the clergy. The incumbent of a parish, besides being put to great expense in collecting his undoubted right, is compelled to submit to imposition, and often embroiled in painful litigation with his parishioners; than which nothing can be more unjust towards the clergyman, nor more deplorable for society. A reasonable standard of composition, therefore, should be fixed wherever practicable, and the law provide for the unvarying produce of such composition. As re-

spects the *right* of the clergy to their tithe, neither landlord nor farmer can allege that the tithes are paid by *him*: the one bought his estate, and the

other took his farm, *subject* to this payment; and each gave less for the land according to the computation of the bargain.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Swithin, bishop of Winchester, who induced Ethelwolf to grant to the clergy, in imitation of the Mosaic practice, a tithe or tenth part of the produce of the lands, for their maintenance. For this pious act he was canonized after death; and his body having been placed, at his own desire, in the common cemetery of the churchyard, it was proposed, some time after, to remove it into the choir of the cathedral. A heavy rain, however, is said to have commenced, and to have continued forty days; which being regarded as a proof of the saint's disapprobation of the proceeding, his remains were suffered to lie in their original place of deposit. Hence the popular story of *St. Swithin's rain*.

Paschasius, a Benedictine of Soissons, who wrote a treatise, maintaining, that, after the consecration of the elements in the Eucharist, nothing remains of these symbols but the outward figure, under which the real body and blood of Christ are present. This doctrine, called Transubstantiation, occasioned a violent polemical controversy; and the Romish church makes Transubstantiation an important article of faith at the present day.

Al Motassem, kaliph of Bagdad. For eighteen years the Saracens, under *Al Maimon*, had been disturbed by the rebellion of one *Babec*, a Persian, who declared himself greater than *Mahomet*, and heir to his throne. *Al Maimon* died soon after seeing his troops put to the rout by those of the impostor; but *Al Motassem*, his successor, sent his general, *Afshin*, against him, who slew the rebel, causing his hands and feet, and afterwards his head, to be cut off. It is affirmed that during the twenty years this ambitious rebel harassed the Saracens, he had caused the death of 250,000

people; one *Nud* owned to *Afshin*, that, in obedience to his master's commands, he had destroyed 20,000 Moslems in cold blood, with his own hands! *Babec's* insurrection had no sooner been put down, than *Theophilus*, the eastern emperor, destroyed *Sozopetra*, the town of *Al Motassem's* nativity, though earnestly entreated by that monarch to abstain from the act; it being a singular feature in the character of the Moslems, to revere, in an extraordinary manner, the place which gave them birth. A deed so highly injurious, inflamed the ire of the kaliph to the highest degree; and we cannot wonder that he should think he was equally punishing the emperor by marching a force upon *Amorium*, in *Phrygia*, the town where-in *Theophilus* first drew breath. To inspire his soldiers, he ordered every one to engrave upon his shield the word *Amorium*; and after a siege of 55 days, got possession of the place. The exasperated *Al Motassem* put its garrison of 30,000 to the sword, levelled the city with the ground, and carried into captivity 45,000 women and children. The death of this kaliph occurred 842. *Al Motassem* was afterwards called *Al Motamen*, or *the eighth*, by his subjects, who, delighting in marvellous tales, affirmed that, besides being the 8th of his dynasty, and born in the 8th month of the year, he had reigned exactly 8 months and 8 days, fought 8 battles, had left at his death 8 sons, 8 daughters, 8000 slaves, and 8 millions of gold. He employed many Turks in his armies, selecting his body-guard from that treacherous people; a measure which eventually caused the ruin of the kaliphate. *Motassem* was possessed of so much muscular strength, as to be able to lift the weight of 1000 pounds.

SECTION III.

ETHELBALD, KING OF ENGLAND.

857 TO 860—3 YEARS.

Ethelbald. The late king had directed that the two eldest of his sons should divide the kingdom between them in such manner, that the first-born should still have priority, and the survivor be sole monarch. Ethelbald, therefore, took the western, and Ethelbert the eastern portion of the island; and the title of king was assigned to the former. Ethelbald proved a profligate prince, as may be shown by the fact of his marrying Judith, his own mother-in-law, daughter of Charles the Bald; a contract which the prelate Swithin induced him to annul. He reigned but three years, and was interred at Sherborne, though his remains were afterwards removed to Salisbury.

CHIEF EVENT.

Rise of Russia, 859, when Ruric was declared duke of Novogorod, after he had, like Egbert, united various petty principalities into one state. Ruric was a Scandinavian, whom Gostomisel, the petty sovereign of Novogorod, had invited to enter Scythia with his trained soldiers, to settle the disputes

of the conflicting boyars, or rulers. The Scandinavians being at that time called both waregers and russes, each word implying warriors, the latter became the designation, not only of the new settlers, but of the ancient Scythian inhabitants.

EMINENT PERSON.

Otfrid, a monk of Weissenburg, author of perhaps the earliest composition in the German language, and still

extant, namely, a version of the gospels in Allemanish rhyme.

SECTION IV.

ETHELBERT, KING OF ENGLAND.

860 TO 866—6 YEARS.

Ethelbert conducted himself in a manner more worthy of his birth and station than his brother had done. The kingdom was still infested by the Danes, who sacked Winchester, but were there defeated; while another body of these pirates sallied from their settlement in the isle of Thanet, and committed ravages throughout Kent. Ethelbert was buried at Sherborne.

CHIEF EVENT.

Expulsion of the Picts from Scotland. Notwithstanding the amicable arrangement between the Picts and Scots before mentioned, hostile collisions again commenced. Dougal, king of Scots, claimed a right to the Pictish throne; and although his appeal was not acknowledged, the Picts

yearly declined in power, until Kenneth II., 838, reduced them to the greatest extremity, taking their capital Camelon, the present Abernethy, and their strongest fort, the Maiden Castle, now that of Edinburgh. Donald V., the next king of Scots, was himself subdued by an army of Picts, aided by

a Saxon force; 20,000 of his men were slain, himself taken prisoner, and all the country from the Tweed to the Forth seized by the conquerors. From some unexplained cause, the Picts suddenly abandoned their advantages, probably because deserted by their German allies; and when a descent was made upon the coast of Fife by the Danes in the reign of Constantine II., 865, it was found that numerous Picts, who had retired abroad, were in their ranks, and had incited the pirates to this attack. Though Constantine was in the end taken captive, and put to death by Hungar, the Danish general, the invaders do not seem to have purchased their victory very easily, as the very numerous Danish monuments in Fife still attest; and we hear of the Picts no more.

SECTION V.

ETHELRED I., KING OF ENGLAND.

866 TO 872—6 YEARS.

Ethelred, third son of *Ethelwolf*, though he displayed the requisite vigour of a ruler, was scarcely able to keep at bay his relentless enemies, the Danes. The people of East Anglia having been overawed by the pirates, furnished them with horses, and thus enabled them to break into Mercia, and take up their quarters at Nottingham; but *Ethelred*, with the assistance of his younger brother *Alfred*, forced them to retreat to Northumberland. In 871, another party seized on Reading, and two battles ensued, at Aston and Basing, wherein the English, though victors, gained little advantage. By this time the party which had fled to Northumberland returned again to East Anglia, and accusing *Edmund*, prince of that district, of treachery, cruelly murdered him; and the place of his burial was in consequence called *St. Edmund's Bury*. The last conflict of moment took place at Merton in Surrey, 871; and *Ethelred* receiving a wound therein, was obliged to retreat into Dorsetshire, where he soon after died, and was buried at Wimborne.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The First Earl. *Alfred* is said to have been created an *Eorl* by his brother, after the battle of Basing; and it is the first time the title is mentioned in history. An eorldom amongst the Saxons was a sort of regal rule over a certain portion of land, and the dignity of eorl, or as we now spell the word *earl*, was long the highest in the kingdom under that of the monarch.

Assassination of Michael III., emperor of the east, who had taken one Basil, of an obscure family, as partner in the throne. Having reason to be jealous of his coadjutor's political designs, he was on the point of deposing him when the latter murdered him, 867, and became sole emperor.

Clocks first used. The Venetians appear to have been the inventors of what might fairly be termed clocks by the moderns. They sold them in Constantinople first, 872.

SECTION VI.

ALFRED THE GREAT, KING OF ENGLAND.

872 TO 901—29 YEARS.

Alfred, one of the most illustrious rulers on record, was born at Wantage, Berks, and confirmed at Rome, when a child, by Leo IV. He was enabled to keep the Danes in subjection, until their vast increase in Wiltshire caused his soldiers to revolt; whereon, having laid aside the marks of royalty, he took shelter in the hut of a neatherd, and there remained in concealment until, by means of a few adherents, he got possession of the small isle of Athelney, formed by the confluence of the Thone and Parret. From this secluded spot in Somersetshire, he occasionally assaulted the unguarded quarters of his enemy; and at length hearing that the earl of Devonshire had beaten the Danish leader, Ubba, and taken his magic standard of the raven, he entered the camp of Guthrum, the Danish prince, disguised as a harper, and ascertained the weak points of his opponents. Summoning his nobles to Selwood Forest, he marched to the prince's camp, and compelled him, in his surprise, to surrender. Such were the numbers of the Danes, that Alfred offered them settlements if they would become his subjects; to which they acceded, and Guthrum was baptized, having the king himself for a sponsor. For some years from this juncture, England was at rest; and Alfred wisely employed himself in erecting castles in proper situations, in forming a militia, and in getting together a fleet of an hundred sail. London, which had been long held by the Danes, he repaired and fortified; and when the enemy again landed in Kent, he drove them back with rapidity to their ships; and with equal promptitude quelled an insurrection which Guthrum's followers had raised in the north. The remainder of his useful life was passed in peace; the Danes no longer troubled him; the Welsh acknowledged his authority; and after seeing himself undisputed king as far as the frontiers of Scotland, he died, to the great regret of his people, at Farringdon, Berks, and was interred at Winchester. As a legislator, a reformer of manners, and a promoter of learning, and the arts, his character is most respectable: he laid the foundation of our common law, by embodying into a system the best and wisest usages of the Saxons and Germans; he adopted, if he did not institute, the trial by jury; he formed in outline the houses of parliament, when he established his great council of bishops, earls, aldermen, and thanes; he invited men of learning to his court from all parts; he founded University college at Oxford, or at least greatly improved the system of education there; and, as an author, he gave to the world versions of Bede, Bœthius, St. Gregory, and Orosius. To crown his great public character, Alfred is described as serene and cheerful in temper; affable, kind, and merciful; and as presenting one of those fine examples of mingled greatness and goodness, which both bless society, and dignify human nature.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Survey of England. Alfred divided England, 878, into large portions called shires, and those into smaller, called hundreds and tithings. Each tithing consisted of ten households or families, and ten tithings were called an hundred. Shire signified, in Saxon, division. The shires or counties of England, at present, are forty. 6 *North.* Cumberland, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, Northumberland, and Westmoreland. 4 *Neur*

Wales. Herefordshire, Cheshire, Monmouthshire, and Shropshire. 12

Middle. Staffordshire, Leicestershire, Warwickshire, Derbyshire, Gloucestershire, Nottinghamshire, Rutland, Worcestershire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Northamptonshire, and Bedfordshire. 8 *East.* Norfolk, Hertfordshire, Essex, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, Middlesex, and Huntingdonshire. 4 *South.* Wiltshire, Hampshire, Berkshire, and Dorsetshire. 3 *South West.* Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. 3 *South East.* Surrey, Kent, and Sussex.

Foundation of Oxford University. This was by Alfred, 886, either by the founding or reformation of the school of University College. This one of the two most celebrated establishments in the world for the promotion of learning, was incorporated in Elizabeth's reign, and is ruled by its own laws. It comprises nineteen colleges, all corporate bodies distinct from each other, and five halls not incorporated. Every member of the university must be matriculated; and on appearing before the chancellor, or vice-chancellor, must declare his rank in life, whether the son of a nobleman, baronet, gentleman, or plebeian, and pay a matriculation-fee accordingly, subscribe to the thirty-nine articles of the Church of England, take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and swear to observe all the statutes, privileges, and customs of the university; and neither to sue before the mayor or bailiffs of the city, nor answer before them as justices, so long as he continues to enjoy its privileges. The principal officers are a *chancellor*, who holds his high dignity for life, and who only attends the university at his installation and during royal visits; a *vice-chancellor*, who continues four years in office, superintends the university, is always head of a college, and has under him four pro-vice-chancellors, also heads of houses; a *high steward*, who is a peer, and must defend the rights and privileges of the university; *two proctors*, masters of arts, and their four pro-proctors, whose duty it is to inspect the conduct of

all members of the university, to see that all men appear in public in their proper dresses, that just weights and measures are used, and to preserve the public peace; a *public orator*, who writes letters and addresses on public occasions, and pronounces harangues to princes and other illustrious visitors to the university; a *keeper of the archives*, who takes care of and arranges all charters, &c.; a *registrar*, or notary public, who registers all decrees, graces, leases, and grants that pass the seal of the university, and receives its rents; and *two clerks of the market*, masters of arts usually, who take cognizance of the quality of all provisions used in the university. Each college has its head, called warden, master, provost, &c., as may be; and such of the members as are appointed to assist him in governing the society, are called fellows, &c., and vary in number and privileges, according to the respective foundations. From this venerable institution, or from those of Cambridge and Dublin, must come all the clergy of the established church of England and Ireland, if we except the few to whom the Welsh college of Lampeter (for the sake of diminishing the costs of education in a country where they could not be afforded) is permitted to grant holy orders. The number of members recently on the books at Oxford was 5300; of which only 2500 are what are called members of convocation, that is, have the privilege of voting in matters relative to the university. Like the ancient monasteries, both Oxford and Cambridge have much property in church benefices and estates, the former of which are bestowed as rewards. The professorships are of course numerous, many of them nobly endowed, and all held by men of acknowledged worth and ability.

The Land Tax first levied. This system of raising a regular supply of revenue, begun by Alfred in 891, was not established in perpetuity till 1689, but was resorted to by various monarchs as occasion required.

Winchester Book was a register of the lands of the nation, their proprietors, and value, ordered by Alfred; and it was the foundation of the Domesday of the Conqueror.

Naval Expeditions. Alfred patronized an expedition to find out a north-east passage to India, and another to carry the Christians of St. Thomas in India a supply of alms.

The Wittenagemote. This council of the wise of the nation, as the term implies, and consisting of bishops, earls, noblemen, and thanes, was probably the rude commencement of our modern parliament; or at least of the house of lords. Alfred is thought to have given form to this ancient Saxon assembly, which had its origin in one of the kingdoms of the heptarchy.

Candle-clocks invented. Alfred, during his quiet hours in Athelney, is said to have planned the measuring of

time by candles: which were made to burn exactly eight hours, and were adopted generally in his reign, at a period when house-clocks were unknown in England.

The burned Cakes. The gravest historians have taken care to relate an incident in the life of Alfred, during his residence in the neatherd's cottage. The wife of the man, ignorant of her guest's rank, desired him to attend in her absence to the baking of some cakes; but the monarch, busily engaged in trimming his bow and arrows, neglected her orders, and the cakes became horribly scorched. The woman, on her return, could not forbear venting her rage upon the king, not only scolding him heartily, but giving him a sound box on the ear; exclaiming, 'that he was ready enough to eat hot cakes, but too idle to look after their baking.'

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

First Notice of Iceland. Garder, a Swede, who had sailed round this remote isle, and wintered on it, 864, was surprised to find a few Christian people there, who spoke Gaelic, and had books; and it is presumed that these were a mixture of British and Irish, whose ancestors had settled there in the fifth century. The population of Iceland, 1834, was 52,000; and is divided into two classes, the fishing and the pastoral. The export of sheep's wool is their great trade: they also send 200,000 pairs of knitted stockings, and 300,000 mittens, or gloves without fingers, to Denmark every year. The clergy almost universally submit to every species of drudgery: their incomes are too small to allow of hired labourers, and nothing is more common than to find the parish-priest in a coarse woollen jacket and trousers, or skin boots, digging peat, mowing grass, or assisting in hay-making. The clergy are all blacksmiths from necessity, and the best shoers of horses on the island. The feet of an Iceland horse would be cut to pieces over the sharp rock and

lava of which the roads are composed, were they not well shod. The great resort of the peasantry is the church; and should any of the numerous horses have lost a shoe, the priest puts on his apron, lights his little charcoal-fire in the smithy, one of which is attached to every parsonage, and sets the animal on his legs again. Even the poorest peasantry are grammatically acquainted with the Latin language; the long seclusion of their winter, when they cannot stir from their cottages for the snow, inducing them to employ a great portion of their time in severe study; forgetting the darkness of their days while reciting the deeds of their ancestors, or boasting of their own liberty, amidst what we should call the almost total deprivation of comfort. Many very learned works, and occasionally poetic ones of extraordinary merit, issue annually from Iceland, and are published in Denmark, to which country the island now belongs.

Schism of the Greek and Latin Churches, 880, which separated their interests for ever. The Greeks, or

members of the church of the eastern empire, affirmed that the Holy Spirit emanates from the Father alone; the Latins, or followers of the papal establishment, determined that it proceeds from both the Father and the Son. The Greek church from this date refused to acknowledge the pope's supremacy, declaring itself amenable to its own patriarch. The Greek patriarch now resides in the capital of Russia, as that nation professes the tenets of the ancient church of Constantinople.

Berenger, King of Italy. From the change in government which took place in most of the continental

states on the death of Charlemagne, ample opportunity was afforded to ambitious nobles to attempt sovereign rule in a petty form. A violent rivalry therefore ensued between Guido, duke of Spoleto, and Berenger, duke of Friuli, which ended in the latter being proclaimed king of Italy, 893. Prosperity attended him for twenty years; and he had the interest to procure himself to be crowned, in 915, emperor of Germany. Rodolph, duke of Burgundy, hereupon became his deadly foe; and in the sanguinary battle of Placentia, Berenger was defeated 922, and two years after assassinated.

EMINENT PERSON.

Erigena, the metaphysician, was a Scotsman, who, after visiting Greece, was patronized by Charles the Bald; but gave great offence to the clergy by opposing transubstantiation. When he translated a pretended work of Dionysius the Areopagite into Latin, in which he attacked some of the dogmas of the Romish church, the pope cited him to Rome; but he fled to England, and Alfred made him head of King's hall, now Brazen-nose college, Oxford,

where he lectured in logic and astronomy. He ultimately retired to the abbey of Malmesbury; and was assassinated there by banditti, 884. When Charles the Bald one day put to him the question, across the table at which they had been dining, 'What is the difference in English, my noble Erigena, between Scot and Sot?' with a view to excite the laughter of his courtiers, Erigena retorted with ready wit, 'Only, Sire, the breadth of the table!'

SECTION VII.

EDWARD I., OR THE ELDER, KING OF ENGLAND.

901 TO 925—24 YEARS.

Edward the Elder. As the eldest son of Alfred had died without issue in his father's lifetime, his second son, Edward, called the elder or first, succeeded, and was crowned at Kingston, Surrey; whence the name of that town. His reign is little other than a narrative of Danish invasion, and spirited opposition on the part of the British. Edward's cousin, Ethelwald, headed one party of these northmen, with a view to supplant his relative, and ravaged the counties of Oxford and Wilts; but the Kentishmen defeated and killed him at Bury. The Danes of Northumberland were next routed by Edward himself at Tetenhall, Staffordshire; and the active monarch, after fortifying Chester, Warwick, and other towns, advanced into Scotland, and compelled the people of that country to keep the Northumbrians, his most obstinate foes, in check; driving out from that province Reginald and Sidroc, two rival princes, who had occasioned him much trouble. Retiring to the court of his sister, Ethelfleda, widow of the earl of Mercia, at Farringdon, he died there, and was buried at Winchester.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Origin of Cambridge University. The earliest authenticated fact in the history of Cambridge is its conflagration, 871, by the Danes; who established on its desolate site a principal station, which they occasionally occupied until 901. When the Danish army quartered there had submitted to Edward the elder, 915, that monarch restored the town, and commenced the re-establishment of a school, which bishop Felix, in the seventh century, had instituted; but it is believed a regular system of academical education was not introduced until 1109, when the abbot of Crowland, having sent some monks well versed in philosophy to his manor of Cotenham, they proceeded to the neighbouring town of Cambridge, and drew a great number of scholars to their lectures. This university is formed by the union of 17 colleges, each being a body corporate, bound by its own statutes, though controlled by the paramount laws of the university. The present statutes were given by Queen Elizabeth. The place of assembly is called the senate-house; and the members of the senate (at Oxford called *convocation*), are upwards of 2300, though the number on the books is about 5300. The executive branch of university government is committed to officers similar in title and duties, generally speaking, to those of Oxford: there are a chan-

cellor, vice-chancellor, public orator, two proctors, and a registrar. The two inspectors of the markets are called *taxors*. Two *scrutators* attend to public elections, and pronounce the assent and dissent to all measures of the lower division of the senate; for the senate is divided into two classes, the *regents*, or upper house, composed of masters of arts, and doctors of a certain standing, wearing hoods lined with white silk, and the *non-regents*, or lower house, including the remaining members, and wearing hoods lined with black silk: before any university grace can be introduced into the senate, it must be approved by a council called the *caput*. Two *moderators* superintend the exercises in philosophy, and the examination for bachelor, as the proctors' substitutes. There is a *marshal* for the university; and the *syndics* are members of the senate selected to frame the laws, regulate the fees, &c. The professorships are numerous and various as at Oxford; and the university is possessed of much landed property, and many church livings.

Wales united under one prince. Howell Dha having conquered the whole of South Wales, 907, declared himself sovereign; and in 912, the princes of North Wales and Powis Land submitted to him, on condition of acting as sub-governors in their respective territories.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Foundation of Normandy. A Scandinavian colony had not long gained a footing along the north coast of France, when Rollo, a Norwegian chief, tempted by reports of the fertility of the country, arrived from the north with many followers, 904. Constituting himself head of the settlers, he marched to Paris; and after sacking that place, arrived at the gates of Rome, which, in the consternation of the moment, he was enabled to enter and greatly spoil.

Charles, called the simple, was then king of France; and to prevent further loss, he offered the freebooter the province of Neustria as a perpetual fief, on the proviso of owning him liege lord. Rollo accepted the boon, together with Charles's daughter in marriage; and, taking possession of the ceded province with his northmen, gave unintentionally enough the name of *Norðmandy* to his acquisition. It is said that Rollo, notwithstanding his

agreement, declined to do homage when called on; but sending his ambassador, that officer, when Charles put out his foot to be kissed, tripped up the monarch, to the no small astonishment of the courtiers. From Rollo descended our William I. Most persons who, in modern times, have passed through Normandy, have remarked both the difference in the appearance of the Normans from that of the French in general, and their striking resemblance to the present inhabitants of England. This may be fairly accounted for, when we reflect that both Normans and English came, in great measure, from the same stock. The Scandinavians first peopled the northern and middle districts of England, and the Saxons, in after times, mingled with them: the Normans had for ancestors certain Germans, expelled by Charlemagne, who mingled with the inhabitants of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark,—the Scandinavians of later times.

The rising Reputation of Venice. Historians are profuse in their commendations of the virtue of the Venetians during the infancy of their city; and Cassiodorus informs us, that one would have taken the inhabitants rather for an assembly of philosophers, living at their ease and cultivating the duties of religion, than for what they really were, a distressed and confused rabble, escaped from the calamities of war. The first important event in the history of Venice was the change of government from the consular to the tribunitial form, which happened about thirty years after the building of the city. An oligarchy was thus formed, which for centuries continued an anomaly in European legislation; at a much later date of its history it became, as all such associations of men necessarily do become, where the blame of evil actions can be shifted from one to the other, the most sanguinary combination of which we read. Well does the 'bridge of sighs,' which still overstrides a Venetian canal, commemorate the gloomy horrors which year after year were visited upon this

unhappy state by a ferocious and irresponsible banditti; and did every street in like manner derive its appellation from some grievous human calamity, it could not sufficiently designate the crimes which flowed from the decrees of so atrocious a tribunal. Venice might be truly named, in this respect, the city of woe. The oligarchy began to be of consequence by its wars with the Lombards, during which its boundaries were enlarged, and a fine fleet created. In the contest between Justinian and the Goths, it afforded considerable assistance to the former; insomuch, that he expressed his gratitude by building two fine churches to the saints Theodore and Germinian; the oldest public buildings, besides St. Mark's and St. Peter's, in Venice. In 697, a great revolution took place in the government: the tribunies were abolished; and in their stead was elected a doge, or duke, in whom was vested the supreme authority. He was to represent the honour and majesty of the state; to have respect and distinction paid him beyond what the tribunies, or even the consuls, enjoyed: he was to assemble, and preside at, the great council; to have a casting vote in all disputed points; to nominate to all offices, places, and preferments; and lastly, to enjoy the same authority in the church as in the state. Under the doges, the power and wealth of the Venetian oligarchy continued to increase. The people made successful war with Pepin, son of Charlemagne, destroying his whole fleet, and driving his army out of their already captured city. In this memorable contest, the number of slain was so great, that the space between the Rialto and Malamoc was covered with dead bodies, and has ever since gone by a name expressive of the prodigious slaughter. The people, conceiving that their doge Obelerio had secretly assisted Pepin, no sooner saw the French withdraw, than they seized both him and his wife, the sister of Pepin, tore their bodies in pieces, and scattered their mangled remains about the city. From 839 to 881 the Sara-

cens greatly harassed Venice; but in the latter year the doge, Orso Participato, drove out the invaders, and re-established the power of the state. In 903 (in the present reign), the military reputation of Venice rose to the highest pitch, by a victory gained over the Huns who had invaded Italy, and defeated Berenger II.; from which period, for more than a century, we only hear that the oligarchy continued increasing in wealth and influence, by an indefatigable attention to maritime affairs and commerce.

Rise of the Fatimites. Abon Obeidollah, a descendant of Fatima, Mahomet's only surviving child, having seized upon Tunis, 909, declared himself kaliph. He soon after got possession of Egypt; and his successors possessed the greater portion of North

Africa until the time of Saladin, 300 years from this period.

Fiefs established. Charles the Simple, of France, appears to have originated this practice, 923. A fee, or feudal tenure, is the holding of lands or tenements on the proviso of doing fealty or homage for the same; by which act the holder declares himself the vassal and inferior of his lord, who can call upon him, according as the terms of the fee may be, to assist him either in peace or war, and to give up to him certain portions of accidental gains.

Rise of Prussia. Brandenburg, the cradle of the Prussian monarchy, was raised to the dignity of a marquisate, 925; Sigefroi, count of Ringelheim, being appointed margrave by Henry the Fowler, emperor of Germany.

EMINENT PERSON.

Ibn Doreid, the first of Arabian poets, settled at Bagdad, and was patronized by the kaliph Al Moctasi. His ode of Alcassydch Almacsoureih is as famous among the Arabs as the

Paradise Lost among ourselves. English Orientalists have frequently commented upon it; and there is a Latin translation of it yet extant.

SECTION VIII.

ATHELSTAN, KING OF ENGLAND.

925 TO 941—16 YEARS.

Athelstan, the natural son of Edward, was opposed on his accession by a young noble named Alfred; but upon the seizure of the latter as a conspirator, he denied any hostile intention, offering to prove his assertion in the presence of the pope. He was accordingly conveyed to Rome; but no sooner had he declared his innocence, than he fell into convulsions and expired. So awful a catastrophe gave strength to the cause of Athelstan, who commenced a plan of conduct which greatly ingratiated him with his subjects. He soothed the Danes by every means in his power; and gave one of that nation, Sithric, the title of king of Northumberland, even bestowing upon him his sister Editha in marriage. Sithric's sons, however, upon the sudden decease of their parent, leagued with Constantine, king of Scotland, to invade England; whereon Athelstan took Constantine by surprise, defeated him at Brunanburgh, and compelled him to do homage for his crown. Soon after this proceeding, Constantine, Anlaf the Danish chieftain, and several Welsh princes, marched into Northumberland; but they were defeated by the king at Brunanburgh, Anlaf and Constantine with difficulty escaping. Anlaf had, on the evening before the battle, entered the English camp in the disguise of a minstrel, to ascertain the position of the king's tent; and Athelstan, being secretly informed of the fact,

lost no time in removing his quarters. Meanwhile an unfortunate bishop, who arrived that night with a reinforcement of troops, took up his abode in the vacant tent, and was found assassinated therein in the morning. Athelstan, just before his death, directed the holy Scriptures to be translated into Anglo-Saxon, and a copy placed in every church. He died at Gloucester, and was buried at Malmesbury. The queen of France, wife of Charles the Simple, and sister of Athelstan, had fled to England with her son upon the dethronement of her husband, 915; and after a residence there of twenty years, her son was recalled to fill the throne. He is called Louis l'Outremer, or the stranger, in allusion to his long exile.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Freemasons. The first grand lodge of England met 926 at York, by a charter from Athelstan, who became a member. St. Alban was a freemason, and so were king Alfred, and St. Swithin. Amongst the grand masters of England are numbered St. Dunstan, Edward the Confessor, William of Wykeham, Henry VII., Sir Thomas Gresham, Inigo Jones, and Sir Christopher Wren. William III. and George IV. were also freemasons.

Scotland tributary to England. This

was effected by Athelstan after the victory of Brunanburgh, 938; and the two countries may be said to have been, from that period until the union of the crowns by king James, wholly opposed to each other in interests.

Merchant Adventurers. Athelstan enacted that every merchant, who should make three long sea voyages on his own account, should be raised to the rank ofthane, an hereditary title equal to that of a modern baron.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Growing Power of Spain. Madrid, then an inconsiderable town, was taken by Alphonso the Great, king of Leon, 931, who now possessed Asturias, Leon, Navarre, and part of Castile. Abdalrahman III. was kaliph of Cordova at the time; and the remains of his portion of the peninsula were now Portugal, Andalusia, Granada, Murcia, Valentia, and part of Castile. This Moorish prince received, with great magnificence, ambassadors from the Greek emperor, Constantine IX., who solicited his aid against the kaliph of Bagdad; so completely had the parent state fallen in power below its rebellious scion.

Fall of the Saracen Empire. All power having long been vested in the Turkish body-guard, from which the vizier or prime minister was selected, the kaliph, Al Radi, to supplant a troublesome vizier, established an office superior in power, calling the possessor of it Emir Al Omra. This great officer had the management of all military and financial affairs, and officiated

for the kaliph in the mosque. In little more than a year after the creation of this post, the whole remnant of the Saracens in the east were in commotion: pretenders to the throne arose in every quarter, and before the close of 937, the Moslem empire was shared amongst thirteen usurpers; Bagdad, with a small surrounding territory, alone remaining to the prophet's successor, Al Radi. Thus fell, 315 years from its foundation, the kingdom of Mahomet; a man whom, if we consider, not as an enthusiast, but as a political speculator, and the founder of a powerful empire, we shall find perhaps superior in character and abilities to all other conquerors. The empire of Alexander, which arose with still more rapidity than that of the Arabs, had no support but from the founder's own ambition and personal qualifications. So it was afterwards in the empires of Jenghiz Khan, and Tamerlane. They erected mighty fabrics indeed; but their duration was comparatively momentary. The empire of

the Romans was founded on the enthusiastic desire of aggrandizing a city, which continued enlarging until it became a republic: patriotism was the chief virtue of its people, and those who fought and conquered, fought and conquered to exalt the republic more and more. Mankind, however, would not always consent to venerate a city; and at length the same divisions that had ruined other states brought this also to an end. Mahomet's empire, however, had a firmer basis; the founder was not only the king, but the sacred idol of his subjects. Whatever enthusiasm men may display in defending their country or nearest relatives, experience has taught us, that it is greatly inferior in quality to that shown in defence of religion. Mahomet had taken care not only to bring over this impulsive feeling to his side, but to exalt it to its highest pitch, by inculcating upon his followers, that their rewards in the next world should be proportioned to the pious fury with

which they fought in this. To live at peace, except with those who submitted to his will, came not within the scope of his plan; and he who made no conquests, or at least who did not strive to make them, was no true believer. By these politic means, whatever already the magnitude of his empire, the temptation to extend its boundaries was still equally strong; and not only the commanders of armies, but every private person, had the most powerful motives to urge him upon the conquest of the whole world, had that been possible. From the single circumstance of Mahomet's neglect to appoint a successor, especially to the *apostleship*, proceeded the divisions which ultimately brought his empire to ruin.

Use of Arabic Numerals. Arithmetic was first made a study in Italy, 941, by the introduction of the Arabian symbols 1, 2, 3, &c., which soon entirely superseded the Roman mode of notation by letters, C, D, V, &c.

EMINENT PERSON.

Guy, Earl of Warwick, was one of Athelstan's court; and amidst all the fables connected with his name, we can gather that his strength was matchless, and that he stood forth in single combat with Colbrand, the grand cham-

pion of the Danes, in a contest near Winchester, wherein he was victorious. Many memorials are shown in Warwick castle of this redoubtable personage.

SECTION IX.

EDMUND I., KING OF ENGLAND.

941 TO 946—5 YEARS.

Edmund I., brother of Athelstan, after compelling the Northumbrians to lay aside their hostile habits, and embrace Christianity, took Cumberland from the Britons, and conferred it on Malcolm king of Scotland, on condition of his doing homage, and protecting the north from Danish incursions. Edmund's reign was short, and his death violent. While solemnizing a festival at Pucklechurch in Gloucestershire, Leolf, a bandit chieftain, whom he had expelled the kingdom, suddenly entered the hall; and the king attempting to turn him out, was wounded with a dagger by the ruffian, and soon after expired. He was interred at Glastonbury.

CHIEF EVENT.

Russian Invasion of the Eastern Empire. The Russians or Russes entered the eastern empire and ravaged it 941, and were on the point of entering Con-

stantinople when compelled to retire. It is singular that, after a lapse of 900 years, the descendants of the same Russes, whatever may be their supposed power over, or intentions against, the present inhabitants of the same Constantinople and its dependencies, are just where they were, extended as

their territories are along the northern portion of the globe; while the semi-barbarous Turks, who possess the seat of the eastern empire, are as likely to hold their ground against the ancient enemy of their soil, as were the vacillating adherents of the Constantines.

SECTION X.

EDRED, KING OF ENGLAND.

946 to 956—10 YEARS.

Edred, sixth son of Edward the elder, and brother of Edmund, began by chastising the Danes, and compelling Malcolm of Scotland to renew his homage. He then gave up the affairs of state to Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, whose monastery he piously rebuilt, and who gained such influence over him as to become infinitely more powerful than himself. At the head of the treasury, and possessed of both influence at court and credit with the populace, Dunstan attempted the most arduous enterprises. Aware that his rise had been mainly owing to the general opinion of his austerity as a monk, he began a reformation of the convents, enforced the celibacy of the clergy, and compelled a rigid observance of monastic discipline. In the midst of these efforts, Edred suddenly died of a quinsy; an event which retarded for a while the abbot's proceedings, though, in the succeeding reign, his designs were fully developed. Edred was buried at Winchester.

CHIEF EVENT.

Rebellion of Hugh the Great. Hugh, duke of Burgundy, obtained great influence in France during the reign of Charles the Simple, and upon that king's deposition, 915, he placed his own relative, Raoul, on the throne, who ruled France until his death in 935. From some unexplained cause, Hugh then recalled Louis and his mother Egina from their long exile in England, and gave the former his father's crown; though he constantly opposed his measures, and forced him to yield Laon and other towns. On

the death of Louis l'Outremer, Hugh compelled Lothaire, his successor, to create him duke of France; and though he died only two years after that king's accession, 956, he left a son, the celebrated Hugh Capet, who equally restrained the royal will, and, not long after, put an end to the Carlovingian dynasty.

Pious Foundations of Edred. Besides rebuilding the abbey of Glastonbury, Edred founded the two monasteries of Croyland and Abingdon; vestiges of which are still to be traced.

EMINENT PERSON.

Luitprand of Lombardy, who, after offending his patron, Berenger II., the self-styled king of Italy, was made bishop of Cremona by Otho the Great. When sent ambassador by Otho to Nicephorus, the eastern emperor, the latter imprisoned him; which so dis-

gusted him with state affairs, that, when released, he passed the remainder of his days in his diocese, employing his leisure hours in the compilation of a history of his own times, a roughly executed but highly interesting book, still extant.

SECTION XI.

EDWY, KING OF ENGLAND.

956 TO 959—3 YEARS.

Edwy, son of Edmund I., was appointed, through the instrumentality of Dunstan, to succeed his uncle Edred, in preference to the infant children of that king. He was only sixteen, but possessed a manly and noble person, as well as mental qualities which gave considerable hope to the people. He soon, however, offended the monks, by espousing his near and beautiful relative Elgiva; and on the day of his coronation, when he had retired from the banqueting-hall to the apartments of the queen-mother, to enjoy for a short time the society of his bride, Dunstan did not scruple to break into the room, accompanied by Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, and force the king back into the company of his nobles. Edwy soon after called the abbot to account for certain sums expended during his uncle's reign; and Dunstan, refusing to explain, was accused of malversation in his office, and banished the kingdom. The friends of the exile, however, spared no pains to obtain a reversal of the sentence; while Odo sent a party of soldiers to seize the queen, which they did forthwith, and carried her to Ireland, after having dreadfully seared her face with hot irons. During her imprisonment, the regular healing process of nature obliterated her cruel wounds; and having effected her escape, she attempted to return to England. A party, however, sent by the primate to intercept her, again captured her, and most barbarously put her to death at Gloucester. Odo instantly recalled Dunstan, drove Edwy from the throne, and placed Edgar his younger brother thereon. While a sentence of excommunication was on its way from Rome against Edwy, that unhappy prince died of a broken heart, and was buried at Winchester.

CHIEF EVENT.

Papal change of Name. John XII., elected at the early age of eighteen to fill the papal chair, was the first pope who ruled by another name than his own. He changed that of Octavian to John, as more scriptural. He was, however, an unworthy usurper of the evangelist's name. He solicited the assistance of Otho the Great against Berenger II. (grandson of the former Berenger), who had seized Italy; and when he had succeeded in driving away his enemy, crowned his ally, and wore to him fidelity over the body of

St. Peter. John, however, became the friend of Berenger's son, and united himself against his ancient benefactor; whereon Otho invaded Italy, and in a general council accused the pope of various crimes, deposed him, and placed Leo VIII. in his room, 963. No sooner, however, had the emperor quitted Rome, than John re-entered it, and with barbarous cruelty mutilated his enemies. He was killed soon after by an infuriated husband, whose wife he had insulted.

SECTION XII.

EDGAR, KING OF ENGLAND.

959 TO 975—16 YEARS.

Edgar was only thirteen when compelled to usurp the seat of his brother ; but by the aid of Dunstan, and his own good abilities, he ruled the country so as to draw from ancient historians the most unqualified approbation. He increased the navy to 360 ships ; and by stationing three squadrons off the coast, prevented all incursions of the foreign Danes ; while the domestic ones were thus deterred from raising their usual insurrections. The king of Scotland, the princes of Wales, and the sovereigns of the isle of man, the Orkneys, and Ireland, were compelled to pay deference to *Edgar's* superior authority ; and, to display his feudal power, he, on one occasion at Chester, obliged eight princes to row his barge on the river Dee. Freed from all dread of invasion, he joined the monks in their attempts to reform the dissolute lives of the secular clergy. His fame alluring a number of foreigners to visit his court, he prevailed upon them to settle in England ; and though this circumstance might tend to the introduction of the vices of the continent among the comparatively simple Anglo-Saxons, it induced the people to enlarge their views, and cured them of those illiberal prejudices, and rustic manners which islanders are too apt to acquire. *Edgar* died aged 33, and was interred at Glastonbury.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Edgar's Marriage. Desirous of allying himself with the house of Olgar, earl of Devonshire, the king commissioned Athelwold, his favourite, to ascertain for him whether report was correct with regard to his daughter Elfrida's extraordinary beauty. The faithless ambassador, however, fell in love with and married the young lady himself, without disclosing to the earl the design of his master. Having removed his bride to a castle in the country, he told *Edgar* that rumour had deceived him, and that Elfrida was beneath his notice. No sooner, however, had some enemies of Athelwold discovered the fact, than they communicated the same to the king, who, under pretence of a friendly visit to the earl, made a journey to his castle. Athelwold, in dismay, prayed his wife to do all in her power to disguise that beauty which was so likely

to become his ruin : she assented, but, untrue to her word, set herself off to the greatest advantage, and not only inspired the king with the highest love for herself, but with the most furious desire of revenge against her husband,—whom, under the guise of hunting, he enticed into a wood, and slew with his own hand. He then publicly married Elfrida.

Extirpation of Wolves. When *Edgar* found that these voracious animals were, by dint of constant pursuit, every where destroyed but in Wales, he changed the tribute due from the Welsh to 300 wolves' heads, annually to be delivered in London. This measure, however, did not exterminate the race ; as the last indigenous wolf of England was killed in the reign of Charles II., 1680, by Sir Ewen Cameron.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Murder of Nicephorus Phocas. John Zimisces, at the instigation of the empress, assassinated this eastern

emperor, 969, and assumed the purple. Though he owed his elevation to so horrible an act, he governed with

moderation, and displayed great valour against the Bulgarians, Russians, and Saracens. At the command of the patriarch he banished the empress, and was himself poisoned by his cupbearer, 976, at the instigation of the eunuch Basil, who ascended the throne as Basil II.

Building of Grand Cairo. This celebrated city, the *Masr* of the Arabians, was built by Moez, the Fatimite kaliph, 972; and he made it the capital of Egypt. 'From the brilliant descriptions (says Mr. Hope) given me of the celebrated Masr, of the kalish, or canal, that runs through

its centre, and of the birkets, or tanks, that adorn its outskirts, I expected, if not an earthly, at least an aquatic, paradise. On first reaching this vaunted city, I saw nothing but filth and ruins on the outside, and filth and misery within. So much, I exclaimed, for travellers' tales !'

Italy added to Germany, 964, by Otho the Great, who put an end to the internal dissensions of the Italian nobles, by depriving Berenger II. of his usurped authority. Italy remained, for 300 years from this period, subject to the German empire.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Dunstan. The monks who have written of this ambitious personage, represent him as the most learned and accomplished prelate, and most eminent statesman of the period in which he lived; while popular tradition paints him as a master of magic arts, subjecting demons to his power, and using them as the unwilling ministers of his designs.

Otho the Great, a warlike prince, was crowned emperor of the west in Aix-la-Chapelle, 936, and throughout a reign of thirty-seven years, was constantly engaged in adding to his dominions, and putting down the encroachments of the Bohemians, Italians, and other foes.

El Hakkam, kaliph of Cordova, is celebrated for his embellishment of the capital, in which he completed the splendid palace commenced by his father, Abdalrahman III., and erected numerous fine buildings, of which very interesting portions remain. A fair instance is recorded (as connected with El Hakkam) of that strict regard for justice which characterized the early Mahometan rulers. El Hakkam had taken into the palace-ground a small piece of land belonging to a poor woman, who could ill spare it: a thing

which, by law, the kaliph could do, as the liege lord of all his subjects. The *cadi*, however, or chief judge of the city, Ebn Bekir, when he heard of the woman's loss, went to the palace, mounted on an ass, and carrying an enormous empty sack. Prostrating himself before the kaliph, who was seated in a pavilion on the very ground that had been taken from the woman, the *cadi* entreated to be permitted to fill the sack with earth from the spot; and on the sack being loaded, El Hakkam was astonished to be asked by the judge to aid him in lifting it upon the ass. He, however, complied; but desisted on finding it too heavy. 'Oh, prince!' replied Ebn Bekir, 'this sack contains but a small portion of the earth you have unjustly taken from a poor woman; how then, at the day of judgment, shall you bear the weight of *the whole*?' This allusion to the vengeance threatened by the Koran against extortioners, who were to be punished after death in a way similar to the mode in which they had committed the offence, instantly caused the kaliph to restore the land, and to give all the buildings which he had erected thereon to the woman.

SECTION XIII.

EDWARD II., OR THE MARTYR, KING OF ENGLAND.

975 TO 979—4 YEARS.

Edward was the son of *Edgar* by his first wife, the daughter of earl *Ordmer*. *Elfrida*, his step-mother, had a son, *Ethelred*, now seven years old, whom she attempted to raise to the throne ; but *Dunstan*, in compliance with the will of *Edgar*, preferred *Edward*. The few years of this prince's reign were occupied by the dissensions of the nobles concerning the Benedictine monks ; some wishing their expulsion, now their patron *Edgar* was no more, while others espoused the side of *Dunstan*, and favoured them. An accidental circumstance operated more powerfully in support of their cause than all the arguments of their friends. During the assembly of a synod, which had been called to settle the dispute, the floor of the chamber wherein it was held suddenly gave way, and all were precipitated to the ground below but the primate, whose chair firmly rested on a cross-beam. This being regarded as an interposition of Providence in favour of the Benedictines, matters were determined in their favour. The death of *Edward* has obtained for him the title of martyr. Hunting one day in Dorsetshire, he was led by the chase near *Corfe Castle*, where *Elfrida* resided ; and, unattended by his retinue, he called at her residence, and was received with every appearance of kindness. On mounting his horse, however, to depart, a servant stabbed him in the back ; and the affrighted king, putting spurs to his horse, soon became faint, and, falling from his seat, was dragged along by the animal until he expired. His attendants found his body by the traces of blood, and interred it at *Wareham* with every mark of regret and respect ; and miracles were believed afterwards to be wrought at his tomb. In three years after, his remains were removed to *Shaftesbury*.

CHIEF EVENTS.

Incursions of the Bulgarians. This people had become very formidable to the Greek empire ; and for ten years from 977 they ravaged it in every direction.

Bohemia added to Germany. This state was wholly subdued by *Otho II.*, son of the great *Otho*, and added,

like Italy, to the Germanic empire, 977.

Juries first regularly summoned by an ordinance of *Edward the martyr*, 979.

The Coronation Oath was first taken by *Edward the Martyr*, four years after his accession ; whereby he agreed to rule his subjects according to law.

SECTION XIV.

ETHELRED II., KING OF ENGLAND.

979 TO 1016—37 YEARS.

Ethelred succeeded quietly to the throne, though his mother's wicked policy was never forgotten by the people : in vain she built monasteries, and performed penances, with a view to evince her remorse : she was regarded as a hypocrite, and treated as such. *Ethelred*, deservedly called the unready, in-

stead of opposing the Danes, adopted the pusillanimous expedient of bribing them to retire, by a payment of 10,000*l.* As might be expected, they returned in far greater force ; but would have been repulsed by the now wiser English, had it not been for the treachery of Alfred, duke of Mercia, who deserted to the enemy with the squadron under his command, and invited Sweyn, king of Denmark, and Olave, king of Norway, to come in person to the island. Those pirates accordingly entered the Thames, and laid siege to London. To prevent the destruction of that city, Ethelred again offered the invaders money to depart ; and Olave making a journey to Andover, where Ethelred resided, was presented with the sum of 16,000*l.* To convince the king that he would never more infest the country, he received the rite of confirmation from an English bishop, and retired with Sweyn ; but his followers appeared next year in the south, and ravaged Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Wales, and Kent. A yet larger amount was then paid to ensure a brief respite ; and though Ethelred, to prevent their return, formed an alliance with duke Richard II., of Normandy, by marrying his sister, the Danes came back ; and he adopted the resolution of assassinating all the settlers of that nation in the kingdom. Secret orders were accordingly despatched for a general massacre, which took place on St. Brice's day, 1002. Sweyn, infuriated by so atrocious a conduct, immediately reappeared on the coast, and was again bribed to retreat ; but, regardless of his oath, he levied a new contribution upon the Kentish people, and after murdering Elphege, archbishop of Canterbury, compelled vast numbers to swear allegiance to him, as sovereign of Britain. Ethelred, who had already sent his queen Emma and her two sons, Alfred and Edward, to Normandy for protection, instantly upon the receipt of this intelligence fled thither himself ; but had not been there six weeks, before the death of Sweyn at Thetford, Norfolk, and a warm invitation from his prelates and nobility, induced him to return. His indolence, however, coupled with the ill-conduct of his son-in-law, Edric, who, besides showing much cruelty during the Danish massacre, had lately assassinated two very popular noblemen, Sigefert and Morcar, induced the leading men of the country to wish Canute, the son of Sweyn, who had the character of an enterprising and talented prince, might become their sovereign. Secretly invited by the malcontents, Canute appeared on the southern coast ; and though opposed on his landing by the troops of Ethelred, the Dane overcame all obstacles. Ethelred, while fortifying London, with the hope of giving him a repulse, was seized with a mortal illness, on hearing that Edric, his perfidious kinsman, had gone over to the enemy ; and he expired, just as the soldiers under his son Edmund were entering the city, after an ineffectual effort to stay the progress of the invaders. The king was buried somewhere in London.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Tax of Danegelt was imposed to raise money for the disgraceful bribes offered to the Danes. It consisted of, first one shilling and then two shillings for every hide of land ; and no less than 150,000*l.* were raised at various times in this manner by Ethelred ; a vast sum, if we consider the value of money in those times.

Paper made of cotton rags was commonly used in England, 1000.

Massacre of the Danes. Neither sex nor age was spared in the dreadful massacre of 1002 ; and even Gunilda,

sister of the king of Denmark, and wife of Earl Palling, was put to death by Edric, after seeing her husband and children butchered before her face.

Norman Architecture. Churches in England, and on the continent, were rebuilt, between 1000 and 1010, both in England and on the continent, in what is now called, by an anachronism, the Norman style of architecture.

Sale of Children was forbidden in England by law, 1015.

A dreadful Plague ravaged Europe from 1006 to 1008.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

The Dynasty of Capet commenced in France 987, by the elevation of Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the great; Charles of Lorraine, the rightful heir, being rejected, on the plea of holding Lorraine by allegiance to Germany. Hugh had acted for the late king, Louis the sluggard, throughout his reign; and the people, disgusted with the imbecility of the Carolingian kings, joyfully acknowledged one so likely to carry on the government with ability. Charles of Lorraine, however, did not relinquish his inheritance without a struggle; and succeeded so far as to seize on Laon and Rheims. But Anselm, bishop of Rheims, under the mask of friendship, betrayed him to Hugh, who kept him prisoner at Orleans until his death. Hugh, though he displayed no extraordinary talents, ruled the country with steadiness, and died 996.

The Empire of Germany declared elective. The progress of government in Germany was greatly different from that of the other states of Europe. While in France and England the dignity of the great lords was hourly giving way to kingly prerogative, in Germany the peers who, from being originally stewards and officers about the emperor's person, had obtained independence, estates, and titles, declared the election of the sovereign to be their right; a claim which was formally acknowledged by the emperor Otho III., and pope Gregory V., 996. This elective faculty remained unimpaired till 1440, when Frederick, duke of Austria, was chosen emperor; and the imperial dignity was then made hereditary in his family. The title of king of the Romans was fixed for that of the acknowledged heir to the empire of Germany by Otho, and so it remained for ages.

Insurrection of Cincius. Otho III., on hearing that a strong party, headed by one Cincius, prevailed in Rome, resolved on restoring the ancient republic, and that pope Gregory V. had

been deposed by the same, and another, named John XVI., placed in his stead, marched thither, 998, and took the city by assault. Seizing Cincius, he beheaded him, and ordered the pope he had set up to have his eyes pulled out, and his nose cut off, and then to be thrown headlong from the castle of St. Angelo.

Hindustan conquered by Mahmoud of Gazna. Gazna, a city of Sablestan, on the confines of India, became the capital of a very powerful empire of the same name, after the fall of the Saracen kingdom, of which it had formed a portion. In 998 its sovereign, Mahmoud, raised it to fame by his conquest of Hindostan, over which his descendants ruled for 150 years.

Spread of Christianity. So rapid of late years had been the progress of our benign religion throughout Europe, that every state possessed a portion of Christians; and in 1000 Olaf king of Sweden, Harold king of Denmark, Miezyslow sovereign of Poland, Wladimir grand duke of Muscovy, and Geysa prince of Hungary, simultaneously became converts, together with their respective nations.

Poland erected into a Kingdom by the emperor Otho III., who declared it independent of Germany, and raised its duke, Boleslaus, to the rank of king, 999.

Battle of Clontarf. The Danes had long harassed Ireland in the same manner as England, but were kept down by the petty kings of the island, until Maelmorha, who usurped the crown of Leinster, called in a vast force of them, and attacked Brian Barumha, sovereign of Munster and Connaught. Brian defeated them on Good Friday, 1014, with vast slaughter, though he was himself killed, after performing prodigies of valour. Malachy, who succeeded Brian, describes the battle in the true style of his country: 'It is impossible for human language to paint it; an angel from heaven only

could give a correct idea of the terrors of that day. We retired to the distance of a fallow-field from the combatants, the high wind of the Spring blowing from them towards us. And we were no longer than half an hour there, when neither of the two armies could discern each other, nor could one know his father or brother, even though he were the next to him, unless he could recognise his voice, or know the spot on which he stood; and we were covered all over, both faces, arms, heads, hair, and clothes, with red drops of blood, borne from them on the wings of the wind! And should we attempt to assist them we could not, for our arms were entangled with the locks of their hair, which were cut

off by the swords, and blown towards us by the wind; so that we were all the time engaged in disentangling our arms. And they fought from sunrise, until the dusk of the evening, when the full tide carried the ships away. It appears that the victory was sufficiently decisive to keep the Danes henceforward from the island; and those days of happiness returned which had blessed the reign of Brian, 'when, so strictly were the laws obeyed, that a lady might travel unattended from Tonn Chliodna to Tonn Tuaithe (that is, from one end of Ireland to the other), with a gold ring on the top of her wand, without being robbed or molested.'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Basil II., Emperor of the East, noted for his barbarity to the Bulgarians. Having defeated them 1014, he cruelly put out the eyes of 15,000 prisoners, and compelled them to go, ninety-nine in a party, led by one who was not thus deprived, into the presence of their king, Samuel; who survived only two days so horrible a spectacle.

Pope Silvester II., the most learned man of his time, succeeded Gregory V., 999. He maintained the church's power with a high hand, was a great promoter of learning, and devoted much of his leisure to physics. He

constructed a clock, globe, and astrolabe, and has left some highly interesting letters on various subjects.

Abbo of Fleury, a Benedictine, who was slain in his attempt to reform a monastery, and who wrote the lives of the Popes, and of Edward the Martyr, still extant; *Abbo of Paris*, who has given in rough verse an account of the sack of Paris by the Normans, which he witnessed; *Ælfric*, archbishop of Canterbury, known by his canons for the regular clergy; *Æcumenius*, a bishop of Theasaly, author of excellent annotations in Greek on the Acts and St. Paul's epistles.

SECTION XV.

EDMUND II. (*IRON-SIDE*), KING OF ENGLAND.

1016 TO 1017—1 YEAR.

Edmund, on finding himself by the demise of his father in possession of the disturbed kingdom, was crowned at Kingston, and instantly attacked Canute, and the traitor Edric, at Scoerston in Gloucestershire. The royal forces, deceived by a stratagem of Edric (who ordered to be hoisted on a pole the head of a slain soldier, whose features resembled those of the king), began to give way; and many hours elapsed before they could be convinced of their monarch's safety. They, however, rallied again; and Edric, pretending to desert from Canute, offered his services to Edmund, whom he advised to retreat towards Essex. Edmund accordingly retreated; and at Assington thought to decide the fate of his kingdom. The fight had scarcely commenced, when Edric again

went over to the Danish side, and occasioned the picking out and slaughter of the majority of the English nobility. Severe as was his loss, the king yet entertained a hope of subduing his relentless foes ; and was about to meet them the third time, when his officers proposed a compromise with Canute. It was therefore agreed that Edmund and Canute should divide the kingdom between them, Canute taking Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumberland, and Edmund all the south. The latter survived this disheartening treaty only a month, being murdered at Oxford by two of his attendants, the accomplices of Edric, who thus gave the undivided sovereignty to Canute, 1017. The body of the murdered monarch was buried at Oxford.

EMINENT PERSON.

Osborne, a Benedictine of Canterbury, who wrote what may be called the fabulous life of St. Dunstan. He therein asserts that Satan, amongst the frequent visits he paid the saint, was one day more earnest than usual in his temptations ; till Dunstan, provoked at his importunity, seized him by the

nose with a pair of hot pincers, as he put his head into his cell, and so held him till the malignant spirit made the neighbourhood resound with his hallooings ; a conquest which wonderfully tended to raise the general esteem for the saint's piety and power.

SECTION XVI.

THE RULE OF THE DANES IN ENGLAND.

1017 TO 1041—24 YEARS.

Canute. How far we are to consider the succession of the Danes to the English throne as a conquest, it is difficult, without a long discussion, to decide : suffice it to say, that Canute professed to receive the crown simply as the guardian of Edmund's infant children, Edwin and Edward, whom he nevertheless sent over to his tributary, the king of Sweden, secretly desiring him to despatch them in any way he could devise. Canute was soon involved in disputes with the English nobles ; some he banished, and many he put to death : amongst the latter was the traitor Edric, who was hanged, and his body thrown into the Thames. He also exacted large fines from such as had shown particular affection for Edmund. When he heard that Richard, duke of Normandy, had prepared a fleet to bring over Alfred and Edward, his sister Emma's children by Ethelred, whose claim to the succession was undoubted, Canute agreed to marry Emma, the widow of Ethelred, and was thus left sufficiently at ease to make two voyages to his northern dominions. In the first of these he put down, by the assistance of Earl Godwin, an insurrection of the Swedes ; and in the last, dethroned Olaus of Sweden, declaring him-self king of England, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. On his return, remorse for his violent conduct seems to have seized him : he built churches, endowed monasteries, and finally made a pilgrimage to Rome, engaging all the princes through whose dominions he passed, to desist from those heavy tolls they were in the habit of exacting from English pilgrims. On his return from the continent, Canute cited Malcolm, king of Scotland, to do homage for the possession of Cumberland : this he could not effect without marching northwards ; but when Malcolm saw the large army of the English, he instantly complied. It was during the last years of his life that a circumstance occurred, which has been recorded to prove Canute weaned from the vanities of the world. Assured by

his flattering courtiers that nothing was impossible to so potent a monarch, he ordered a chair to be placed on the sea-shore, as the tide was rising : ' Thus far shalt thou go,' exclaimed he to the roaring ocean, ' and no farther : ' and when the waves dashed over his feet, he practically convinced his adulatory followers, that God alone was endued with power over the elements. From that day forward he would never wear his crown ; and, dying at Shaftesbury, 1035, was buried at Winchester. *Harold I.*, son of Canute by his first marriage, succeeded his father, though it had been stipulated that his son by Emma of Normandy, *Hardicanute*, should fill the throne at his death. A civil war was on the eve of breaking out, to decide the claims of the brothers, when it was agreed that Harold should have London, and the provinces north of the Thames, and *Hardicanute* the southern counties ; Emma taking up her abode at Winchester until her son, the king of Denmark, should arrive to take possession. Meanwhile the two sons of Ethelred, Alfred and Edward, who had been brought up in Normandy, came over to England to pay their mother Emma a visit ; but were waylaid, and attempted to be assassinated, by the hirelings of earl Godwin and king Harold. They succeeded in seizing Alfred, whose eyes they put out, and who died of the injuries he received in the fray, at Ely, soon after : Edward, however, escaped, and together with his mother, fled beyond sea. Harold, hereupon, took possession of the share allotted to his brother ; and when the latter was leaving Denmark with a considerable fleet to punish this unnatural conduct, Harold died at Oxford, 1039, and was buried at Winchester. He was called hare-foot, on account of his agility in running. *Hardicanute*, so called for his strength, had no sooner landed in his new dominions, than he ordered the corpse of his brother to be disinterred, and thrown into the Thames, for the cruel treatment of his brother Alfred. He accused earl Godwin of being accessory to the murder ; but that noble turned away the wrath of his new master by presenting him with a magnificent sailing-vessel, rowed by eighty men, each wearing on the arm a bracelet of gold, and armed and clothed in the most sumptuous manner. *Hardicanute* then renewed the tax of Danegelt for present necessities, to the great discontent of the people, who at Worcester killed two of the collectors ; and he was proceeding to adopt far more rigorous measures, when death seized him by apoplexy at a marriage-festival at Lambeth, 1041, thus freeing the nation from a yoke it had borne twenty-four years. He was buried at Winchester.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Expulsion of Edmund Ironside's children. Olaus, king of Sweden, abhorring the course proposed to him by Canute, 1017, sent Edwin and Edward to Solomon, king of Hungary, who educated them in his court, and married them to members of his family. Edwin soon died ; but Edward had by Agatha, daughter of the emperor Henry II., three children, Edgar Atheling, Margaret, afterwards queen of Scotland, and Christina, who took the veil.

Influence of the Danish Conquest. No great change in the habits or manners of the people had been effected during the Danish sway in England.

The two nations had been one race in most points from the time of Ethelwolf : in 200 years they had intermarried, their language was the same, and the rulers alone made the chief distinction : these were either Saxons or Danes, without affecting those beneath, otherwise than by their squabbles for pre-eminence. Great therefore was the general joy when it was discovered that the death of *Hardicanute* would secure the country from future disturbance, rather than because the Saxon line of sovereigns would be restored ; about which the main body of the people cared little.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Bulgaria added to Germany. The emperor Basil II. reduced this kingdom to a province of his empire, 1019, from which time it was governed by Roman dukes for 167 years.

Fall of the Kaliphate of Cordova. The hereditary vizier at Cordova had long been more powerful than the kaliph; and with Almanzor, vizier of the kaliph El-Hakkam, the glory of the kaliphate expired. For twenty years that minister waged a successful war against the increasing power of the Spaniards, taking their capital, Laon. In 998, however, he was defeated at Medina Celi by Sancho, king of Leon; and dying soon after, all was anarchy in the kaliphate. El-Hakkam was deposed 1005; and after numerous usurpations, Ialmarben Mohammed, the last kaliph, was driven out of Cordova, 1027, by a faction, and the kaliphate split into six petty states — Toledo, Saragossa, Seville, Valencia, Lisbon, and Huença; each of which had its king. In this divided condition the once glorious Cordova continued, until the foundation of Granada, two centuries after. So fell the empire of Abdalrahman, after a splendid existence of 200 years; and we regard its history with respect, when we remember that all the other states of Europe were either sunk in igno-

rance, or torn by anarchy, during its vigorous career. England, weakened by her heptarchy, was utterly insignificant in political history; France was only an incipient and semi-barbarous nation; Italy was always in utter confusion; Greece, though possessed of the arts and luxuries of ancient Rome, had lost her energy, and was only anxious to settle scholastic questions, or to unravel metaphysical and speculative subtleties; while Germany, Poland, Muscovy, and the northern states, were occupied in settling down within defined boundaries, without much certainty as to the matters of duration, and form of rule.

The Kingdom of Arragon founded. This portion of Spain was made a kingdom independent of that of Leon, by Ramirez, 1035; the kingdom of Leon was at the same time greatly strengthened by the junction to it of the remainder of Castile under Ferdinand the Great. When Sancho, the son of Ferdinand, succeeded, the whole Spanish fabric was nearly subverted by a quarrel with his two brothers, Alphonso of Leon, and Garcia of Galicia, whom he forced to take refuge for a time with their natural enemies, the Moorish kings of Toledo and Seville.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Burchard, bishop of Worms, who compiled the collection of canons, entitled 'The great Book of Decrees,' considered as sound church-law to this day.

Guido Aretino, a Benedictine, who reduced music to a fixed system, 1035. He invented the monosyllables of the Solfeggio (ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la), from the lines of a Latin hymn; but *si*,

whence the modern scales of the two modes, major and minor, is a later invention.

Avicenna, the Arabian physician, practised at Bagdad, 1036, and the sultan of Persia made him his vizier. Such of his medical writings as are extant are little more than copies from the works of Galen.

SECTION XVII.

EDWARD II., OR THE CONFESSOR, KING OF ENGLAND.

1041 TO 1066—25 YEARS.

Edward, son of *Ethelred II.*, who had so narrowly escaped assassination, and who had been educated in Normandy, was fortunately at court when his half-brother *Hardicanute* died ; and the nobles, to prevent the claim of *Sweyn*, king of Norway, *Hardicanute's* eldest brother, declared in his favour, rather than wait for the coming over of the descendants of *Edmund Ironside* from Hungary, the true heirs. *Edward* contrived to lay his first taxes, so that they should fall most heavily on the English Danes, who had obtained their wealth by the deprivation of the Saxons,—a measure which brought him vast popularity ; but when he began to display an attachment to the Norman habits, language, and people, earl *Godwin*, who longed for a ground of quarrel, suddenly appeared in arms, demanding the dismissal of three Norman divines, who had been promoted to the sees of *Dorchester*, *London*, and *Canterbury*. By the aid of *Siward*, earl of *Northumberland*, *Edward* kept the rebellious earl in check ; and *Godwin*, upon the defection of his troops, was obliged to escape to the continent. The influence of this noble, however, regarded as he was by a large body of the nation, as the descendant of the ancient kings of *Kent*, was too well grounded to allow of his expatriation ; and entering the *Thames* with a large fleet, equipped for him by the earl of *Flanders*, he so far overawed *Edward's* party as to be allowed to land and justify himself. Feigning regret for what had passed, he agreed to give as hostages for his future quiet conduct, one of his sons, and his great-nephew ; and these the king sent over to his kinsman, the young duke of Normandy. The earl died soon after this transaction ; and *Harold*, his son, pursuing his father's policy, endeavoured to raise a party amongst the nobles, on whom he might rely for placing him on the throne, should *Edward* leave no issue. The king's dislike of the *Godwins*, however, determined him to look elsewhere for an heir ; and his young friend and former companion, *William of Normandy*, possessed of military and other popular virtues, seemed to him the person most capable of putting down the numerous competitors for the crown, that his decease would cause to arise. This duke, who was only the natural son of duke *Robert* by a tanner's daughter, had been on a visit at the English court at the period of *Godwin's* rebellion ; and it is probable the king expressed to him, on that occasion, his wish that he should be his successor. A circumstance soon after occurred, which enabled the duke to disclose his designs. *Harold* having sailed for Normandy, to solicit the release of his brother and nephew, the hostages given to *Edward*, was wrecked on the territory of *Guy*, count of *Ponthieu*, a tributary of Normandy ; who made him prisoner for the sake of ransom, and carried him to duke *William*, his liege lord. The duke received his captive with kindness, but before he would permit his departure with the hostages, extorted from him a promise that he would not prevent his succession on the death of *Edward* ; making him swear to that effect on an altar, beneath which the relics of holy persons were concealed, a most sacred form of oath in that day. Meanwhile a change had taken place in *Edward's* views with regard to the succession, which in the end operated still more favourably for *William*. The king, whether from a fear of offending his people by declaring for the duke of Normandy, or struck with sudden remorse for his exclusion of the house of his elder brother, *Edmund Ironside*, had sent to Hungary for *Edward*, that prince's

only remaining son, who brought with him to England his three children, Edgar Atheling, Margaret, and Christina, but died almost instantly after his arrival. Edgar Atheling stood therefore next in descent; but Edward, fearful of trusting the sceptre to a boy of delicate temperament, determinately fixed again upon William of Normandy; and though he made no will in his favour, he led him to hope for success; while the accident of Harold's captivity tended to confirm the ardent expectations of the duke. Edward, however, kept up appearances with Harold, who was allowed to head a force against the Welsh, when they infested the western borders, under prince Griffith; and who drove them to such extremities that they cut off Griffith's head, and sent it to him, in the hope that he would spare the lives of his remaining followers. So valiant an exploit, and his disinterested refusal to take up the cause of his own brother Tosti, now duke of Northumberland, who had treated the Northumbrians with so much cruelty that they rebelled, gained him the applause of the nation; and promises of support, in case of the king's decease, were made him in many quarters. That event almost instantly occurred: Edward, broken with age and infirmities, was seized with a sudden illness, which carried him to the grave, in his 66th year, January 5, 1066. The people concurred in bestowing upon him the title of confessor, or saint, for his general piety and virtue; while the monks lauded his strict conformity to the rules of St. Benedict. His body was interred in the abbey church of Westminster, erected by himself; his bones being, more than a century afterwards, enshrined in a curious manner in gold, set with jewels.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Corned. When earl Godwin was accused of having been accessory to the death of the king's brother, he appealed to his corned, or morsel of execration, which, according to the vulgar story, stuck in his throat, and killed him. The corned was a piece of consecrated bread eaten by the Anglo-Saxons when they desired to clear themselves of a crime, praying that it might be their last morsel, if guilty; hence perhaps the phrases of abjuration amongst the common people, 'I will take the sacrament upon it;' 'May this morsel be my last;' for the

Eucharist was administered to the person taking the corned; if indeed the corned was not, as some have suspected, the sacramental element itself, till the subsequent belief in transubstantiation preserved it from such profane uses.

Touching for the King's Evil. The belief in the power of a king's touch over the scrofula existed from 1058, when Edward originated the practice, until the eighteenth century; whence that affection has been denominated the king's evil.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Exploits of the Cid. The name of this Spanish hero was Don Roderigo Dios de Bivar, Cid being merely the Arabic term for lord. He was educated at the court of Castile, and acquired the reputation of being the greatest captain of the age. He saved Don Sancho, in his war against his brother Alfonso, king of Leon; and when Sancho was killed by treason, would not allow Alfonso to succeed him, until he had solemnly cleared

himself of his murder by oath. In 1074, he married Donna Ximenes Dias, daughter of count Alvares of the Asturias, and soon after quitted Castile, as a bandit-chief, to ravage Arragon. At length he made himself sovereign of a territory which he conquered from the Moors; and on the murder of Hiaya, king of Toledo, became master of Valentia, which he held until his death in 1099. The Spanish romance-writers have mixed up the history of the Cid

with countless fabulous tales, including his single combat with Don Gomez, and marriage with his daughter. The latter forms the subject of Corneille's admirable tragedy, 'The Cid.'

The Order of St. John of Jerusalem founded for the protection of the holy sepulchre against infidels, 1050.

Death of Macbeth. This ambitious thane obtained the kingdom of Scotland by murdering Duncan at Inverness, 1040, when Banquo and Macgill shared the fate of their sovereign. The usurper retired to the highlands, upon hearing that Edward of England had espoused the cause of Malcolm, the rightful heir; and that monarch soon after entered Scotland, with an army under Siward, earl of Northumberland. For two years after the coronation of Malcolm, Macbeth continued to harass the country by sudden descents from his mountainous retreat; but at length he fell in a skirmish near his own fortress at Dunsinane, by the hand of Macduff, thane of Fife, 1057. The most interesting facts of this usurpation are recorded, with some licence, by the immortal Shakspeare.

Foundation of the Duchy of the Two Sicilies. Melo, a nobleman of Bari in Italy, had, in the beginning of the eleventh century, invited some Norman soldiers to join him against a neighbouring enemy: they accordingly crossed the Alps, assisted him, but were defeated; and not being able to return home, they wandered amongst the Italian mountains. These mercenaries being fearless men, were soon courted to assist the princes of Capua, Salerno, and Naples, in their petty quarrels; and the latter rewarding

them with some land, they founded the city of Aversa, 1028. Thus established, they aided the Greek emperor against the Saracens, in the contest for Sicily; the Saracens were beaten, but the Greeks behaving ungratefully to their Norman allies, the latter attacked them on the plains of Cannæ, and wrested from them all Apulia. Leo IX., the first pope who kept a standing army, marched with a force of Germans and Italians to dispossess them: but they captured the pontiff; and he, to redeem himself, granted to them, not only Apulia, but Calabria, 1054, for a perpetual possession, to which pope Nicolas II. soon after added Sicily. The whole was ruled as an independent duchy till 1130.

Revolutions in the Eastern Empire. Zoe, the empress, an abandoned woman, who murdered her first husband to raise the court jeweller to the throne, was deposed and imprisoned, but ultimately restored; she then took as her third consort, Constantine Monomachus. She died 1050. Isaac Comnenus, emperor soon after, finding the throne untenable, retired, after two years' reign, to a monastery, 1059.

Progress of the Turks. During the reign of Edward, the progress of this Tartar horde in Europe and Asia was very considerable. In 1035 the Turks under Togrul-Bek got possession of Persia; and they greatly harassed the eastern empire, rendered Bagdad tributary, and in 1065 took Jerusalem from the Saracens. The Turks were Tartar slaves, who worked in the mines, but declared themselves an independent tribe at the commencement of the Christian era.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Glaber, a Benedictine of Clugni, who wrote a chronicle of France in Latin, containing much valuable information, combined with fable.—*Theophylact*, bishop of Acris, in Bulgaria,

who converted the barbarians of his diocese to Christianity, and wrote a commentary on the New Testament, of great merit.

SECTION XVIII.

HAROLD II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1066.

Harold II. His accession was attended with as little opposition as if he had mounted the throne by the most undoubted hereditary title. The powerful nobility, the bishops, clergy, and citizens of London, adopted his cause; and neither the duke of Normandy, nor Edgar Atheling, were mentioned as likely to prefer any claim. Harold was accordingly crowned by the archbishop of York, on the day after king Edward's death. The first signal of a wish to dispute his authority came from abroad. His brother Tosti, whom the rebellion of the Northumbrians had driven into exile, urged Baldwin, earl of Flanders, to join William of Normandy in his meditated descent upon England. The emperor Henry IV., and pope Alexander II. also, warmly espoused the cause of William; insomuch that he was enabled to assemble a fleet of 3000 vessels, and an army of 60,000 men, besides having the aid of Tosti and Harold Halfager, king of Norway, who, with 360 vessels, were the first to land in Northumberland, and commit depredations on that coast. In this enterprise Tosti and the king of Norway fell; while a large portion of their army, unable to re-embark, was cut to pieces by the English under Harold in person, who had rapidly marched to Stamford to give them battle. The king had scarcely time to rejoice for this victory, when he heard that the duke of Normandy had landed at Pevensey in Sussex. William, with his vast armament, had reached the English coast in safety, and had quietly disembarked his soldiers. The Normans, buoyed up with the hope of conquest, were inclined to regard the trifling circumstance of their leader's fall upon the beach, when attempting to leap from his boat, as an omen fraught with all manner of good; exclaiming, 'See! he embraces the land he was born to subdue!' With all the celerity in his power, Harold directed his march into Sussex, and drew near to the invaders, who had removed their camp to Hastings. So confident was he of success, that he sent a message to the duke, offering him a sum of money to depart the kingdom; but William refusing all negotiation, he prepared steadily to eject him.

CHIEF EVENTS.

The Battle of Hastings. The aspect of proceedings on the night before the battle was very different in the two camps. The English spent the time in riot, jollity, and disorder; the Normans in prayer, and the other functions of religion. Early in the morning of the eventful day, October 14, 1066, the duke, after an animating address to his soldiers, divided his force into three lines, himself taking command of the cavalry; and giving the signal of attack, the whole army, singing the song of Roland the Brave, advanced in order, and with alacrity, towards the enemy. Harold had

seized the advantage of a rising ground: the Kentish men were in the van, the Londoners guarded the standard, and the king himself dismounting, placed himself at the head of the infantry, his valiant brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, having each a wing under his command. The first assault of the Normans was desperate, but was repelled by the bravery of the English; and again and again they attacked, and met with a similar repulse. At length William resorted to stratagem to draw his opponents from the advantageous post they occupied. He commanded his troops to make a hasty

retreat; and the English supposing them panic-struck, followed them into the plain; whereon the Norman infantry, facing about, fell upon them, and repulsed them with great slaughter. Still were the English again rallied, and kept in tolerable force by the activity of Harold; and regaining their former position, they maintained it with astonishing courage, until the Normans a second time attempted the deceit. As the inexperienced English again fell into the snare, William was enabled to attack them in flank with a set body of heavy-armed infantry, and at length prevailed. Harold was struck by an arrow, which pierced his eye, and occasioned his almost instant death; his two brothers shared the same fate; and the army, discouraged by the fall of those princes, gave ground on all sides, and soon left the field to the Normans. A troop, however, of the vanquished party is said to have turned suddenly upon its pursuers, when passing some deep and miry ground, and to have obtained some revenge for the dishonour of the day; but the appearance of the duke obliged it to seek safety in flight. Thus was gained by William duke of Normandy, not only a decisive victory, but a kingdom; after a battle which lasted from sunrise to sunset, and which seemed worthy, by the heroic valour displayed on both sides, to determine the fate of a great nation. William had three horses killed under him, and there fell nearly 15,000 Normans: but the loss on the part of the British was far more considerable. The Norman army left not the field without giving thanks to heaven in the most solemn manner; and the duke, having ordered the dead body of Harold to be given up to his afflicted mother, prepared to push to the utmost his advantage against the divided, dismayed, and discomfited English. He marched without delay to London, accompanied by his remaining knights and officers, who became the founders of many of our present titled families; and whose names of de Beaumont,

de Warren, de Montgomerie, d'Estaples, de Thouars, de Grantmesnil, Ashburnham, Giffard, &c., are yet to be found in our peerage. So fell the Anglo-Saxon dynasty, after a duration of 600 years, calculating from the dominion of Hengist.

Alleged Escape of Harold. It has been affirmed that Harold was borne off the field privately, that his wound was not mortal, and that when Henry I. visited a dying hermit at Chester, who had been celebrated for his pious austerities, the recluse declared to the monarch that he was the unfortunate Harold.

England under the Saxons. It has often been a question whether the Norman conquest tended to retard the progress of arts, science, and literature, in our island. Perhaps the introduction of a new language might affect the monasteries, those only depositories of learning and abodes of the learned; while the greater communication with the continent might give such as had devoted themselves to the cloister a taste for the divinity of the schools, and for those useless polemical contests, so frequent throughout the papal world. With regard to the main body of the Anglo-Saxons, they were a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilled in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, and addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Their best quality was military courage, which yet was supported by neither discipline nor conduct; while their want of fidelity to any leader, as well as their want of humanity to each other, may be abundantly traced in all their history. Since the conquest placed the people in a capacity to receive slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and, by its restraints, served to correct their rough and licentious manners, we have perhaps little reason to repine at an event, which might otherwise be considered a national disgrace. The four orders of Anglo-Saxons were the *thanes* or barons, the *clergy*, *ceorls* or

freemen, and *villains* or slaves. The Wittenagemotte, or assembly of elders, ruled the nation, and was composed of thanes and clergy. The trial by ordeal was resorted to on all emergent occasions; when, if the accused could hold a red-hot iron, walk through fire, be held under water, or swallow poison, without injury, he was acquitted, as if by Heaven. While the main body of the people were savages as respects the arts of building and agriculture,

and the finer arts of painting, &c. (no traces being left of the Roman improvements), the clergy, so soon as Christianity was established, adorned their churches with paintings and sculptured figures. The ancient bards too were supplanted by poets of a more regulated order; and music, especially as connected with the harp, was made an important study by thanes and princes.

PERIOD THE ELEVENTH.

The House of Normandy.

1066 TO 1154 — 88 YEARS.

SECTION I.

WILLIAM I., OR THE CONQUEROR, KING OF ENGLAND.

1066 TO 1087—21 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.

William I. was born 1023 at the castle of Falaise, near Caen. He married Matilda, daughter of Baldwin, earl of Flanders, by whom he had four sons and six daughters. His son *Robert* succeeded his father in Normandy, but had tried to possess himself of the duchy during William's life: he even contended in battle with his father, and was on the point of killing him, when the king, who was concealed by his armour, cried out, and was thus saved. His sons *William* and *Henry* succeeded him in England. One of his daughters, *Adela*, married Stephen, earl of Blois; and her son, Stephen, became king of England.

William was tall and portly: his strength was such that few could carry his arms, or draw his bow; he could even squeeze together a horseshoe, by merely doubling his fist. Some notion may be obtained of his roughness, when it is stated that, having been displeased at some delay on her father's part, when, in 1047, he made proposals of marriage to Matilda, he waited for her as she returned from mass at Bruges, seized her, and having rolled her in the dirt, and spoiled her clothes, rode off without saying a word. Some months after, she became his wife. In reference to his birth, he was often taunted by the legitimate lords of the day with whom he waged war; and during an attack upon the town of Alençon, the besieged were imprudent enough to shout to him from the walls, 'La peau! la peau! à la peau!' at the same time beating some hides, in allusion to the trade of the citizen of Falaise who was William's grandfather. The duke immediately had the feet and hands of all the prisoners cut off, and thrown by his slingers into the town.

The character of William may be summed up in few words. He possessed superior talents, both political and martial, and employed them with remarkable

vigour and industry. His passions were, however, strong; his ambition severe and merciless; and his love of sway often led him to disregard all restraints of justice and humanity. There never was a more fortunate conqueror, or usurper of a throne, as he transmitted that of England to a long and still subsisting line of descendants; and the establishment of his dynasty may be said to have altered the entire current of English history.

POLITICAL HISTORY.

William marched to London after the victory of Hastings, without meeting opposition; and the alarmed citizens, with even Edgar Atheling, the rightful heir, acknowledged him king. As Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, had favoured Atheling's succession, William selected the archbishop of York to crown him; and having brought his new subjects to submission, he returned to Normandy, to enjoy the congratulations of his ancient people. The injustice, however, of certain Normans, to whom he had committed the government of England in his absence, occasioned a conspiracy to destroy the invaders to a man, on a concerted day: and William's opportune return alone prevented the catastrophe. From this moment he began to act with severity. He gave the estates of the Saxon nobles to his retainers; filled the sees and benefices of the clergy with Norman prelates and priests; and introduced the feudal laws, then prevalent in France. Scarcely had edicts to this effect been issued, when he was called to Normandy, to put down his own son's insurrection; and he had only just quelled it, and returned to England, when a more formidable one broke out in the duchy, fomented by the king of France. William hereupon again crossed to the continent; and while riding over the still hot ashes of the outwork of the town of Mante in France, which he had invested, his horse, suddenly rearing, threw him with force against the high metal pommel of the saddle, and so injured him, that he died soon after at Hermentrude near Rouen.

In his last moments he said, 'As for the kingdom of England, I bequeath it to no one, for it was not bequeathed to me; I acquired it by force and at the cost of blood. I leave it in the hands of God; only wishing that my son William, who has been submissive to me in all things, may obtain it, if he please God and prosper.' At sunrise, on September 10, he was awakened by the sound of bells; and being told that they were ringing for the morning service at the church of St. Mary, he lifted up his hands, saying, 'I commend myself to my lady Mary, the holy mother of God,' and almost instantly expired.

The attendants, seeing that he was dead, hastily mounted their horses, and rode off to take care of their property; and the serving men of inferior rank thereupon carried off the arms, vessels, clothes, linen, and other moveables, and fled likewise, leaving the corpse naked on the floor. 'Alas! (says Mr. Dawson Turner) then was the desolater desolate indeed!' William was buried at Caen; and a singular circumstance occurred during the ceremonial. The bishop of Evreux having made a speech in favour of the deceased, a loud voice from the crowd exclaimed, 'He whom you have lauded is a robber: this very spot is the site of my father's house, of which he unjustly deprived him to build the present church; and I summon the departed soul before the divine tribunal, to answer for the tyranny!' The solemn appeal struck all present, and the charge of the accuser being acknowledged just, compensation was made him, and the body was interred. The conqueror's tomb was afterwards disturbed, and his remains taken away in portions.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Curfew Bell (*couvre-feu*) was ordered by William to be rung in every city and town, at eight o'clock at night, at the sound whereof fires and candles were to be extinguished. This was not a mere institution to annoy the English, for William had long before established the practice throughout the Norman dominions, as an act of police, to guard against destruction by fire, and prevent robbery.

Surnames were first used, and usually taken from the owner's estate or place of birth, as John of Sarum, Matthew of Westminster.

The Tower of London, and other forts and castles, especially border-forts, were erected, to give the Norman proprietors power, should they be attacked by the deprived Anglo-Saxons; and Battle Abbey in Sussex was built to commemorate the victory of Hastings.

The Chancery and Exchequer Courts, were established. *The court of Chancery* is now next in power to the house of peers. It exercises jurisdiction in cases of equity, to abate the rigour of common law. Its head is called lord chancellor; formerly he was termed keeper of the seals, or lord keeper, because he holds the royal signet, and places it upon documents issuing in the king's name. The lord chancellor is the highest officer in the kingdom: he appoints all justices of the peace, is a privy councillor, and speaker of the house of lords by prescription. He is keeper of the king's conscience, visitor of all royal hospitals and colleges, and patron of all the king's church-benefices of the value of 20*l.* or under, per year, in the *Liber Regis*, as it is called. He is the guardian of infants, and lunatics; and has the general superintendence of all charitable foundations in the nation. In the present day he has an assistant, called vice-chancellor. *The court of Exchequer*

takes notice of matters connected with the public revenue or income; though, by a fiction of law, all personal suits may be prosecuted therein. The chancery court was so named from the lattice-work called cancelli, with which it was environed, to keep off the press of the people; as, in like manner, the chancel of a church was formerly divided from the nave. The exchequer derives its name from the chequered cloth, resembling a chess-board, which covers the table, and on which, when certain of the king's accounts are made up, the sums are still scored with counters.

Law Terms and Returns instituted, 1079. The three highest courts of common law, the queen's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, are open during the Term-times to all who think fit to complain of wrong, or to seek their rights by due course of law, or action. But the high court of parliament, the chancery, and the inferior courts, do not observe the terms. In contradistinction to these, the rest of the year is called *vacation*. There are four terms in a year: *Hilary*, from 23 Jan. to 12 Feb.; *Easter*, from Wednesday after Easter-day to Monday three weeks afterwards; *Trinity*, beginning Friday after Trinity Sunday, and ending Wednesday fortnight after; and *Michaelmas*, which begins 6th and ends 28th November. These arrangements were made to agree with the pre-existent canon-law, which ordained that certain holy seasons, viz., Advent, Lent, Pentecost, and harvest-time, should be kept free from the tumult of forensic litigations. The first and last are called fixed, and the two intermediate, moveable terms. After Hilary and Trinity, which are denominated issuable terms, the judges go their circuits for the trial of causes, wherein issues have been previously joined. *Returns* are days in each term set apart for the several parts of

proceedings in any cause to be determined.

The Domesday Book compiled. This is still kept at Westminster, and is fair and legible: it consists of two volumes, a greater and a less, containing a survey of nearly all the lands in England. The question whether lands are ancient demesne (i. e., such as were next to the lord's mansion, and which he kept in his own hands for the support of his household, and for hospitality), or the contrary, is decided by this book, without the power of appeal to any legal court. The name *domesday*, from the Saxon *dom* and *day*, both implying *judgment*, was applied to the book to show that a sentence arising from the evidence therein contained, could not be appealed from.

The Feudal System, then prevalent in France, was introduced by William. By this a division was made of all lands, except royal demesnes, into baronies; which were given to the most faithful of his Norman followers by the conqueror. These retainers shared a great part to other foreigners, termed therefore knights or vassals, who paid to their lord the same duty

in peace and war which he himself paid to his sovereign. The few English who preserved their estates, were glad to be received into this second class, and, under the protection of some powerful Norman, to load themselves with a grievous expense for lands, which they had received free from their ancestors. The church was not spared: for the bishops and abbots were ordered to furnish to the king, during war, a number of knights, proportioned to the property of each see or abbey, or to pay fines in lieu. Servants were sold with the estates, in the same manner as the cattle; and they usually wore a collar round the neck, as a badge of slavery.

Forest Law established, by which no one could hunt in the large forests of the kingdom; William claiming them as his private property. The penalty was more severe than that for a man's murder: eyes being put out for killing a deer, when a fine would exculpate a murderer. William cleared a space of thirty miles in Hampshire, demolishing churches, convents, and private houses, without compensating any one, to plant the New Forest as a preserve for game.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Alexius Comnenus seizes the Eastern Throne. The Eastern empire was still doomed to undergo the miseries consequent upon a frequent change of rulers. Eudocia, on the death of her husband, Constantine Ducas, 1067, took the government into her hands, to the exclusion of her son, Michael; she then married Romanus Diogenes, a general who had conspired to dethrone her; and the pair were in 1071 driven out by the same Michael. Nicephorus Bonionates succeeded Michael, 1078; and from him Alexius Comnenus wrested the crown in 1081. Alexius defeated, and drove out of the empire, the Turks and other northern in-

vaders; and received the princes going to the Crusades (in the reign of Rufus), with coldness, until intimidated by their numbers; when he promised them his support. He died 1118, and his life, or rather panegyric, has been written in Greek by his daughter Anna Commena.

Rise of the Carthusians. A religious order which derived its name from the desert of Chartreux near Grenoble in France, where its first monastery was erected by Bruno, 1086. Its monks never quit their cells but to go to church, nor speak to any one without leave of their superior.

EMINENT PERSONS.

St. Bruno, who declined an archbishopric which Urban II. offered

him, that he might devote himself to private acts of munificence and piety.

Ingulphus, secretary to the Conqueror, who almost rebuilt Croyland Abbey, of which he was abbot.—*Suidas*, a writer under Comnenus, who compiled a Greek lexicon, valuable for its quotations from lost authors.

SOVEREIGNS. — *East Empire*. 1059, Constantine Ducas; 1067, Eudocia regent; 1067, Michael VII.; 1068, Romanus Diogenes and Eu-

docia; 1071, Michael VII., reinstated; 1078, Nicephorus Bonionates; 1081, Alexius Comnenus. *Popes*. 1062, Honorius II.; 1073, Gregory VII.; 1080, Clement III.; 1085, Victor III.; 1087, Urban II. *Scotland*. 1057, Malcolm III. *France*. 1060, Philip I. *Germany* (or *West*). 1056, Henry IV., the Great.

SECTION II.

WILLIAM II. (*RUFUS*), KING OF ENGLAND.

1087 TO 1100—13 YEARS.

Personal History. William, third son of the conqueror, was born in Normandy, 1056. Like his father, he possessed much strength and agility: his countenance was ruddy, and his hair red (whence his *sobriquet*), and he had an impediment in his speech. He was courageous; but intemperate in habits, and extremely covetous of money. He seldom lost an opportunity of making acquisitions of a pecuniary sort; and contrived to punish the offences of his subjects by fines, in preference to any other mode. He was never married.

Political History. William had many difficulties to contend with, on coming to the throne. His father's wish that he should succeed, rather than Robert, who was both older and more experienced, gave great offence to many powerful Normans, who seized the border-castles in Robert's name, and would scarcely consent to relinquish them, even when the main body of the English declared for William. Robert's departure for the Holy Land was highly advantageous to his brother, who took the duchy of Normandy from him in mortgage. Conspiracies, however, both in Normandy and England greatly harassed the reign of Rufus; and there is reason to suppose that something beyond accident put an end to his life. While hunting in the New Forest, an arrow discharged at a deer (according to common report by Sir Walter Tyrrel, his bow-bearer), struck him to the heart; and his body was conveyed to Winchester for interment by one Purkis, who was passing with a charcoal-cart at the moment of the catastrophe, and whose descendants still reside near the spot where the death occurred. Tyrrel always strongly denied having been with the king on the day of his death; and it does not appear that he fled, as has been stated, to join the crusades, and evade punishment.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Rebellion of Odo. William was scarcely seated on the throne when Odo, bishop of Bayeux, and Robert, earl of Mortaigne, his uncles, laid a plan to dethrone him, 1088, and put his brother, Robert, in his room. Rufus, however, was early apprized of the scheme; and taking the field before his kinsmen were prepared, reduced Pevensey and Rochester, where

they were arming themselves, and forced them to quit the kingdom.

Building of Westminster Hall. Besides other structures for the ornament of the city, William built a hall at Westminster, 270 feet long by 74 broad, for royal feasts; on the site of which another hall stands, appropriated to various public uses. The coronation dinner is there prepared,

and the courts of law are held in adjoining apartments.

The Goodwin Sands. The sea made an irruption, 1100, on 4000 acres of land left by Earl Godwin to the monks of Canterbury. They were situated

nearer to France than the frontier-town of Dover now is; and the sands which afterwards accumulated on the spot, have continued to this day a dangerous shoal to mariners.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Rise of the Assassins. In 1090 began the dynasty of the Assassins in Irak; whence sprung a second party of them in Syria. Their creed was a mixture of Islamism and Hindu paganism. Their leader was styled the aged of the mountain, and his command made him so formidable to his enemies, that neither time nor distance could screen them from the daggers of his devotees. Holagou, the Mongul chief, overturned the Irak-tribe, and the Mamlukes destroyed the Syrian 1280, after a duration of 190 years.

The Cistercian Order founded, 1094, by St. Robert, a Benedictine. So powerful did its members become, that they at length governed Europe in spiritual matters. The monks never wear shirts, nor eat flesh, nor lie on any thing but straw, rising at midnight to prayers. The nuns are always habited in white.

The first Crusade. Eight separate attempts made by combined Christendom to drive the Saracens from Palestine, occupying nearly two centuries of time from the opening of the first, received the name of *Croisades* from French historians, on account of the cross worn as the emblem of their faith by all who engaged in these holy wars. The chief ground of complaint against the Moslemin possessors of Syria was the hinderance experienced by pilgrims visiting Jerusalem; and when Peter, called the hermit, a monk of Amiens, had in his own person experienced many indignities, he brought the matter before pope Martin II., and in an assembly of 4000 of the clergy, proposed the precipitation of the whole body of European Christians into the plains of Syria, to eject the infidel contemnors of the faith. The

success of his enthusiastic harangue was commensurate with the boldness of his scheme; and nearly all his auditors took the vow. By the year 1095, six millions had devoted themselves to the work; and pope Urban II. agreed to commence the march upon Palestine. In 1096, therefore, Peter himself led the way through Hungary, at the head of 300,000 undisciplined men; while the regular soldiery of numerous nations approaching Constantinople, the place of rendezvous, poured thence upon the plains of Asia, to be mustered. Their number was found to exceed 700,000, their chief commander being Godfrey de Bouillon, duke of Lorraine. In this expedition, the city of Nice was taken by the duke; and when Jerusalem fell to the confederated army, 1099, Godfrey, for his valour, was declared king. The duke's humility, however, would not suffer him to assume the ensigns of sovereignty; and he governed under the title of defender and baron of the holy sepulchre. He then overthrew the soldan of Egypt at Ascalon; and thus obtaining possession of all Palestine, put an end to the first crusade. Godfrey died after only a year's reign, but is immortalized as the hero of Tasso's 'Jerusalem Delivered;' and his virtues appear to have merited all the praise of the poet.

Although two million souls perished in the Crusades, no permanent subjugation of the Saracens was ever effected, for obvious reasons. The eastern emperors, warmly as they espoused the cause at the onset, grew jealous of the inundation of barbarians which their country was compelled to sustain; and at length united with the Turks to drive the adventurers from their boundaries. The crusaders also quarrelled

amongst themselves; and could neither agree while marching together to conquest, nor unite their conquests under one government when they had made them. Their cruelties, too, inspired the infidels with an invincible hatred, and caused them to resist with the greater obstinacy. When Jerusalem fell, not only was the Saracen garrison put to the sword, but the innocent inhabitants were massacred without distinction, including the aged of both sexes, defenceless women, and children at the breast; to the eternal disgrace of warriors, who affected to act for the glory of Ilim, who had preached peace and the love of enemies on the very soil they thus polluted. To look on the brighter side, some lasting good resulted to Europe from these misnamed holy wars. Those who were fortunate enough to return from Palestine, had acquired a

polish wholly foreign from their original barbarity. A long endurance of privations of every kind, an habitual deference to superior command, and the necessity of making concessions in matters great and small to promote unanimity, had powerfully operated to soften the mind, and to generate those high ideas of honour so essential, in mere worldly commerce, to the easy progress of society. Poets and writers of romance continued the ameliorating work by the most captivating tales of imagination; wherein manly sentiments, enlightened views, the love of country and of religion, and the virtues of courage, generosity, and compassion, were extolled, and the chivalric heroes of the Holy Land marked as the true church-militant, and extolled to the skies for their acts of almost superhuman valour.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Anselm, born in Savoy, was promoted to the see of Canterbury by Rufus, but banished by the same monarch for supporting the dignity of his office. Henry I. prevailed on him to return; when he distinguished himself by enforcing the celibacy of the clergy.

SOVEREIGNS. *Popes.* 1087, Urban II.; 1099, Pascal II. *Scotland,* 1057, Malcolm III.; 1093, Donald VII.; 1094, Duncan II.; 1094, Edgar; 1095, Donald VII. restored. *East Empire,* 1081, Alexius Comnenus. *France,* 1060, Philip I. *Germany (or West),* Henry IV., 1056.

SECTION III.

HENRY I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1100 TO 1135—35 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry I., youngest son of the conqueror, was born at Selby, Yorkshire, while his parents were on a visit there, a year after the foundation of the abbey, 1068. By his wife, Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., and niece of Edgar Atheling, he had—1. *William*, drowned at sea. The king had taken him into Normandy to be recognised heir to the duchy after himself; and on the return of the royal party, the king and certain lords having embarked in one vessel, and the prince and some youthful friends in another, the captain of the latter vessel, Fitzstephen, became intoxicated, and ran the vessel on a rock; and the prince, his natural sister, and 140 young noblemen perished. King Henry, it is said, was never known to smile after that event. 2. *Matilda*, or Maud, first married to Henry V. emperor of Germany, and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, by whom she had our Henry II. By his second wife,

Adelais, daughter of Godfrey, duke of Louvaine, who survived him, Henry had no issue. Henry's cruelty to his brother Robert, was extreme. He not only deprived him of his duchy, but of his eyesight; and kept him a prisoner for life in Cardiff castle—twenty-eight years. Henry was of a middle stature, robust, of mild aspect, and fluent in speech. He had good natural talents, and they were cultivated for his day; whence he had the title of beauclerc, or fine scholar. His general character was that of a cool, calculating, intrepid man, with some spice of sternness, and even cruelty, on occasion; but he was on the whole a popular sovereign, remitting crown debts, restoring many Saxon privileges which his father had abolished, and causing the restraint of the curfew to cease in the first year of his reign.

Political History. Henry hastened to Winchester upon his brother's death, and seized the royal treasure there. The barons then proclaimed him, though the friends of Robert were inclined to oppose the measure. To conciliate the people, he granted a charter of liberties, which was the foundation of the Magna Charta of John; and married the niece of Edgar Atheling, whereby he united the deposed Saxon family with the Norman: a match which gave universal satisfaction. Robert, on his return from Palestine, having asserted his right to the English crown, Henry passed into Normandy, 1106; and taking him prisoner at the battle of Tenchebray, confined him for life in Cardiff castle, and took possession of his duchy. The chief merit of this monarch's government consists in the profound tranquillity which he established and maintained throughout his dominions during the greater part of his reign. The mutinous barons were retained in subjection; and his foreign neighbours, in every attempt which they made upon him, found him so well prepared, that they were discouraged from continuing their assaults. In order to repress the incursions of the Welsh, he settled a party of mercenary Fleming soldiers, on whose fidelity he could rely, in Pembrokeshire, 1111, and these foreigners long maintained their peculiar customs and language, until they made alliances with the natives of the soil. Though Henry's government was arbitrary, it was judicious, and as little oppressive as the necessity of his affairs would permit; while the most difficult object of his prudence was the guarding against the encroachments of the papal see. His death was occasioned by a surfeit of lampreys at St. Denis, in Normandy; and his embalmed remains were interred in the abbey he had built at Reading.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The English Constitution founded. Henry's charter of liberties, promulgated in 1101, is properly the foundation of our present constitution: the Magna Charta of John was little more than a renewal of the same.

The First Stone Bridge in England was erected by queen Matilda, over the Lea, at Stratford, whence the village was usually called Stratford-le-Bow, now Bow. The queen had nar-

rowly escaped drowning at the ford which had previously existed there; and her bridge was not pulled down until 1834.

A Plague, the nature of which we are not told, ravaged England in this reign.

The Thames was dry, nearly the length of London, for three days and nights, 1114.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Disputes about Investitures. Henry IV., the western emperor, had entered into a violent dispute, in the reign of the conqueror, with pope Gregory

VII. respecting the right of Rome to investitures, that is, to fill up vacancies in church-benefices. Gregory, the son of a poor Tuscan carpenter, dis

played, during the contest, a vehement desire to extend the temporal as well as spiritual powers of the papacy, regarding even sovereigns as vassals whom he could appoint and depose at pleasure. Henry, alarmed when he calculated the consequences of Gregory's fiat for his dethronement, submitted to his authority; and repairing to Rome, solicited during three days, with the most mortifying penance, the forgiveness of the holy father. Gregory, however, went so far as to give Henry's throne to Rodolph of Suabia; and the emperor having slain the usurper at Volckheim, not only threw off his allegiance to Rome, but deposed the pontiff, placing Guibert, archbishop of Ravenna, in his room. Gregory, tired with the dissensions his ambition had raised, retired to private life: and Henry, some years after, was dethroned by his own rebellious children, and compelled to throw himself upon the mercy of his son Henry for a subsistence. This rebellious son, his successor, and fifth of the name, commenced with Pascal II. a still more furious contest concerning investitures, 1112. The pope, though obliged to yield to his antagonist, excommunicated him; and Henry, when Gelasius II. was raised to the papacy, perceiving all Europe to be against him, was glad to restore to the hierarchy all that he had wrested from it.

Foundation of the Order of Templars, 1119, at Jerusalem, for the protection of the holy sepulchre; and the knights were main actors in the crusades. Each was to attend mass daily, to abstain from flesh four days in the week, to have three horses and one esquire, and to refrain from hunting and fowling. After the ruin of

Jerusalem, the order spread throughout Europe; and in each nation had a governor, styled master of the temple, a grand-master always residing at Paris. It became immensely rich, oppressive and cruel; and Philip the fair of France, jealous of its encroachments, denounced it to the pope; whereupon a host of accusers arose, and declared the members guilty of murder, sacrilege, and infidelity. Many of the knights were in consequence put to death, and the order suppressed by the council of Vienne, 1312. Their dress was a white habit, with a red cross sewn upon the cloak: hence the red-cross-knight of romance.

Bohemia made a kingdom. This country of modern Austria, originally the seat of the Boii, a people of Gaul, was raised to sovereign dignity 1119, by Henry V., who made its duke Ladislaus king.

The Two Sicilies made a Kingdom. Roger II. (Guischard) a descendant of the Norman founders, assumed the title of king, 1130, and was acknowledged by the eastern emperor and other sovereigns of the period.

Noble Robbers in France. The reign of Louis VI. was grievously disturbed by what appears in our days of civilization an extraordinary state of society. Such was the rapacity of the French nobles, that they scrupled not to beset and plunder travellers on the highway. Among the most powerful of these titled robbers, were the Montmorenci and Monttheri, who were the terror of all passengers on the road between Paris and Orleans. Louis fought with, and at length subdued, these bandits; and by giving charters of privileges to the large towns, prevented a recurrence of such evils.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Abelard, a scholar, whose fame has arisen from his misfortunes, was born of a noble family in Brittany, and displaying great dialectic skill, was tempted to lecture in Paris at an early age, in opposition to his master, William de Champeaux, the most famous professor of metaphysics of his day.

Scholars came to him even from Italy, Germany, and England; and while he found himself the theme of admiration amongst the learned of the one sex, he received the yet more flattering testimonials of approbation of the other. It was at this juncture that he became passionately enamoured of Heloise,

niece of the canon Fulbert, a beautiful young woman already devoted to the nunnery ; for whom her uncle, with great indiscretion, had selected the attractive Abelard, then forty years of age, as a preceptor of philosophy. The speedy consequence of this blameable arrangement compelled Abelard to propose to Fulbert the retraction of his niece's vow to take the veil ; but though the canon consented, Heloise herself, to the great surprise of her lover, refused compliance ; partly it is said out of regard to the interest of Abelard, whose profession bound him to celibacy, and partly from the romantic and erroneous notion that love is purer and more potent when unshackled. They were, however, ultimately married : and Fulbert's affection for his niece declining, her husband removed her to the convent of Benedictines, where she had received her early education ; a measure which brought upon Abelard the canon's fiercest wrath. Ruffians were employed to inflict severe injuries upon his person, which nearly reduced him to the grave, and for which Fulbert was afterwards deprived of his benefice ; and Abelard hereupon entered the monastery of St. Denys, after removing Heloise to the abbey of Argenteuil. After these unhappy occurrences, the philosopher again resumed his lectures, and was again surrounded with pupils to a degree that excited the envy of rival teachers ; insomuch that they denounced him to the pope as an Arian. Unable to resist the calumnies of his enemies, he retired to a vale near Nogent, in Champagne, where he erected a small oratory to the Comforter, or Paraclete. He was quickly followed by his pupils ; and a rustic college gradually arose round his retreat. The duke of Bretagne had just procured his election to the vacant abbey of St. Gildas, when the convent of Argenteuil, of which Heloise had become prioress, was united to the abbey of

St. Denys ; a proceeding that left her and her fellow-nuns destitute of an habitation. On learning this misfortune, Abelard made over to them the Paraclete ; and it was after this removal that the correspondence took place which has been immortalized by the talents of Pope. Abelard died 1142 ; and, at the request of Heloise, his body was removed, after interment, to the Paraclete ; where the widow and abbess daily prayed over his tomb. Heloise died 1163, and was deposited by his side ; and the remains of this celebrated pair, after being carried from one part of France to another by enthusiastic admirers in subsequent centuries, were at length finally, it is hoped, deposited 1817 in the cemetery of Père-la-Chaise at Paris, in a sepulchral chapel built out of the ruins of the Paraclete. All the works of Abelard are in Latin, of which the exposition of the Lord's Prayer, and a commentary on the Epistle to the Romans, are best known : the letters of Heloise, however, have attracted more admirers than have the productions of her husband, whose present notoriety is perhaps solely owing to the interest excited by them, objectionable as they often are for their false reasoning and immoral tendency.

Anna Comnena, daughter of Alexius Comnenus, failing to secure the eastern purple for her husband, Nicephorus, devoted herself to literature, and wrote her father's life, in which she smartly attacks the pretensions of the see of Rome, and highly lauds her parent.

SOVEREIGNS. *East Empire.* 1081, Alexius Comnenus ; 1118, John II. Comnenus. *Popes.* 1099, Pascal II. ; 1118, Gelasius II. ; 1119, Calixtus II. ; 1124, Honorius II. ; 1130, Innocent II. *Scotland.* 1095, Donald VII. restored ; 1107, Alexander ; 1114, David. *France.* 1060, Philip I. ; 1108, Louis VI. the Fat. *Germany (or West).* 1056, Henry IV. ; 1106, Henry V. ; 1125, Lothaire II.

SECTION IV.

MATILDA, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1135 TO 1153—18 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry's only legitimate child, Matilda, was born 1101, and had been betrothed when eight years old to Henry V., emperor of Germany, in whose dominions she had been educated. Her husband dying, 1127, her father bestowed her on Geoffrey, count of Anjou, called *Plantagenet*, from the broom-sprig (*planta-genista*) worn by his mercenary soldiers, as a mark of distinction. On pretence that the latter marriage was never ratified by either England or Normandy, Stephen laid claim to the throne. Matilda, by her second union, had one son, afterwards our *Henry II.* After signing the treaty which gave her rival the crown for his life, she retired for ever to France, dying there, 1167. The empress, though of a masculine spirit and hasty temper, was anxious for the peace of her people, steadily attached to those on whose judgment she endeavoured to rely, and quick to fathom the evil designs of her numerous enemies. She is represented as a lovely woman in person, having a feminine rather than a dignified carriage, and a persuasive yet energetic manner when conversing. Far from treating the clergy, as a body, with hauteur, as some historians have recorded, she did all in her power to conciliate them; and it was only when conflicting with their organ, the bishop of Winchester, whose intriguing and ambitious spirit produced all her misfortunes, that she seemed to slight their interests.

Political History. The failure of male heirs to both England and Normandy had clearly left the succession open to Matilda, especially now that fiefs, contrary to the original intention of the feudal laws, very generally passed in descent to females. But Stephen and Henry, grandsons of the Conqueror by the mother's side, who had been much noticed by the late king, their uncle (the former of whom he had enriched by forfeited estates, and the latter raised to the see of Winchester), had secretly leagued to prevent her enjoyment of the throne. No sooner had Henry breathed his last, after appointing his daughter to succeed him, than Stephen, insensible to all the ties of gratitude, hastened to England; and though the people of Dover and Canterbury shut their gates against him, pursued his way to London, where some of the lower rank, instigated by his brother's emissaries, immediately saluted him king. His brother, the bishop, gained over the clergy, and infamously suborned Hugh Bigod, steward of the household to Henry, to make oath before the primate (who had refused to give the royal sanction to any other than Matilda), that the king, on his deathbed, had declared Stephen heir of all his dominions.

As the ceremony of coronation was considered in those days to give full title to the claimant, Stephen, when it had been performed, was allowed to proceed to the exercise of regal authority. To secure his precarious power, he made liberal promises to all orders of men; to the nobility, that he would reduce the royal forests to their ancient boundaries; to the clergy, that he would speedily fill all vacant benefices; to the people at large, that he would remit the tax of *danegelt*. The clergy, as the price of their obedience, stipulated that he should defend the ecclesiastical liberties; while the barons exacted terms destructive at once of the public peace and of the royal authority. They required the right of fortifying their castles: and all England was instantly filled with citadels, for the maintenance of whose troops unbounded rapine was exercised upon the people. The country was soon rendered a scene of violence and devastation. Wars between the nobles were carried on with fury in every

quarter; and as the inferior gentry could find no protection from the laws, they had recourse to David, king of Scotland, who entered Yorkshire at the head of his army, in defence of his niece the empress's title. But in the battle which ensued at North Allerton, (called that of the Standard, from a high crucifix carried in a waggon by Stephen's army,) David was wholly defeated by the usurper's mercenary soldiers; and Stephen would probably have been more securely seated on the throne than before, had he not offended his imperious brother.

Stephen, having experienced the mischief occasioned by the increase of fortified castles, had resolved on diminishing their number; and in his zeal to effect so important an object, began with those of the bishops. His brother, incensed to the highest degree at his presumption, called a synod at Westminster, with a view to stay his proceedings; and during that assembly, the prelate omitted not to exclaim openly against the impiety and ingratitude of one who was indebted to himself for the distinction he enjoyed. He even went so far as secretly to invite the empress to land in England; which she accordingly did, 1139, with a retinue of 140 knights, led by her half-brother, Robert, earl of Gloucester, and fixed her residence at Arundel castle, the gates of which were opened to her by Adelais, the queen-dowager, now married to the earl of Sussex.

The state of England, soon after this event, was most deplorable. The unruly barons, under the pretext of fighting on either side, exercised implacable vengeance on each other by day; and, by night, sallied forth as common bandits, spoiling the open country, villages, and even towns. They tortured their captives to make them reveal their treasures, and sold their persons into slavery; so that the land was left untilled, and a grievous famine, destructive to all parties, ensued.

At length, however, a termination seemed likely to be put to the public calamities. The earl of Gloucester having come to the relief of some partisans of Matilda, who had attempted to seize Lincoln in her name, 1140, Stephen was called by the citizens to their aid, and, in the contest which followed, was taken prisoner. When it was known that their leader had been carried to Gloucester, and there loaded with chains, the usurper's forces were entirely broken; and as the barons flocked from all quarters to do homage to the empress, nothing now remained but to gain the clergy to the royal side. Matilda, therefore, held a conference with the bishop of Winchester, who was now armed with a legantine commission from the pope, in an open plain near that city; whereat the prelate eventually promised to transfer his allegiance from his brother to herself, on being appointed chief director of her affairs, and having the disposal of all vacant sees and benefices. He then conducted the empress in procession to the cathedral, and, in the presence of many bishops and abbots, both granted absolution to all such as should quit the cause of Stephen, and excommunicated such as refused to be obedient to Matilda. In a synod of the clergy, held soon after, he crowned her with the usual ceremony; and in a short time London, and all the other great cities, acknowledged her authority, 1141.

Affairs, however, remained not long in this situation. The queen, pressed by various parties at once to grant requests, a compliance with which might be disastrous to her cause, in the incipient condition of her government, had not the tact to temper with affability the harshness of her refusals. She peremptorily rejected the petition of the consort of Stephen to release her husband, of the Londoners to restore king Edward's laws, and of the bishop of Winchester to give up Stephen's continental estates at once to his son Eustace; and the prelate, who had probably never intended to keep faith with Matilda,

conspired with a party to seize her person. He even besieged her, in the autumn of 1141, in Winchester, whence she escaped to Gloucester, as a deceased person, on a bier, and thence to Oxford, which was defended by her friends. Stephen having by this time been liberated, invested Oxford with a tolerable force; and the queen finding, after some months, that the garrison could not hold out much longer, was let down by a rope from a window of the castle, and conveyed by her adherents from one fortified castle to another, as her safety required. In this manner she passed the succeeding three years; until, considering her affairs hopeless, she retired to Normandy, 1146.

It was in 1153 that William, archbishop of Canterbury, fled beyond sea to avoid giving the royal unction to Eustace, the son of Stephen, in order to secure the throne to him after his father's decease. The son of Matilda, now nearly of age, was hereupon encouraged by his mother's friends to make an invasion of England; and landing on the southern coast, he attacked the usurper's forces at Malmesbury with some advantage. The leaders of both armies, however, suddenly terrified at the prospect of further confusion, interposed their good offices, and set on foot a negotiation between the rival princes. The death of Eustace during the course of the treaty facilitated its conclusion; and it was agreed, in the presence of the queen, who had come from Normandy for the purpose, that Stephen should possess the crown during his life, and Henry succeed to the kingdom on his demise.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Canon Law instituted. In 1151, soon after the publication of Gratian's Decretal, a code was drawn up for the regulation of church-affairs in England. As the pope's jurisdiction in the spiritual matters of all states was founded on canon-law, quarrels respecting the interpretation of it were constantly occurring between the kings and prelates of former days; and it was not until the act of Henry VIII. for the clergy's submission, that, although the power of making canons resided in the clergy in convocation, their force was derived wholly from the royal assent.

St. Katharine's Hospital founded by Matilda, the wife of Stephen, 1148, for the repose of her son Baldwin and her daughter Matilda. Provision was made for the maintenance of a master,

brethren, sisters, and certain poor persons; and Eleanor, the widow of Henry III., altered the foundation, 1273, to three brethren chaplains, three sisters, ten bedeswomen, and six poor scholars. To this day the hospital exists under royal patronage; and of late years new buildings have been erected for it in the Regent's-park, the master having a picturesque residence on the estate. The incomes of all the members, arising from landed property, are now of good amount.

Castle Building. Eleven hundred castles were built in different parts of England, by permission of Stephen. Ruins of many of these baronial residences, so connected with the romantic portion of our history, are still extant.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Portugal made a separate Kingdom. At the battle of Ourique in Portugal, 1139, between Alphonso, son of Henry, duke of Burgundy, and five petty Moorish kings, the latter were defeated, and Portugal was raised from the rank of a dependant province to that of a kingdom, of which Alphonso was declared sovereign.

Rise of the Guelphs and Ghibellines. We have seen how, in the matter of investitures, a rivalry commenced between the papal see and the western empire: in 1140 arose two factions in Italy, having the same ground of quarrel, and for nearly two centuries from that period deluging the country with blood. The Guelphs supported the

interests of the pope, and the Ghibelines those of the emperor. The parties borrowed their appellations from a dispute which had occurred a few years before in Germany, respecting a right to the imperial crown. Conrad III., when elected emperor, claimed Bavaria as a portion of Germany; but Guelph, of the house of Este in Lombardy, who was duke of Tuscany, affirmed it to belong to Tuscany, as a conquest made by his deceased brother, Henry d'Este. In the contest which ensued, the imperialists took for their war-cry Wui-blingen (corrupted by the Italians to Ghibelline), in compliment to their general, prince Frederick, who had great estates in that town; while the Bavarians and Tuscans assumed that of Guelph.

Origin of the Hanse Towns. In 1140 was founded the city of Lubeck, in Holstein, with peculiar trading privileges. The circumstance occasioned the formation of a league, called from the Teutonic idiom *hanseatic*, or confederate, because other maritime cities of Germany joined Lubeck in adopting measures for the protection of commerce. In process of time this alliance became so powerful, that its ships of war were hired by sovereign princes to carry on their contests with enemies. The league is in the present day dissolved, and each city carries on trade for itself, though with privileges be-

yond those of other municipal bodies.

The Order of Carmelites began. A monk of Calabria, pretending a revelation from God, founded on mount Carmel, in the Holy Land, a monastery for ten brethren, 1141, and laid down rules for its management. Flesh was not allowed to be eaten; and the sect became one of the four tribes of mendicants, or begging-friars, or, as they are called from their dress, *white friars*.

The Second Crusade began 1144, under the German emperor Conrad III., and Louis VII. of France, and by the advice of St. Bernard. The emperor's army was either destroyed by the enemy, or perished through the treachery of Manuel, the eastern emperor; while the French forces, through the defection of the Syrian Christians, were compelled to break up the siege of Damascus.

The Conquest of Gazna by Gauri. The empire of Gazna had continued in the family of Mahmoud Gazni, till Gauri, a Seljirk chieftain, dethroned Chosru Shah, the reigning sultan, 1153. This new dynasty greatly extended the empire towards India, reconquering Persia and Chorasán, and becoming at length competitors with the famous Jenghiz Khan for the rule of all Asia. The latter, however, was skilful enough to baffle all his opponents.

EMINENT PERSONS.

David I., king of Scotland, was one of the greatest princes of his age, and performed many noble actions in the cause of his niece, Matilda, during her competition with Stephen. His laws, called the code of Melrose, were compiled by several learned men, whom he had assembled for the purpose from various parts of Europe, at his magnificent abbey of Melrose.

William of Malmesbury, a monk, author of a Latin history of England, from the arrival of the Saxons to the period of Matilda's escape from Oxford, often referred to.

St. Bernard, a noble Burgundian,

founded the abbey of Clairvaux, and became its superior. His zeal and eloquence soon peopled the solitude; and during the life of the founder, a pope, six cardinals, and thirty prelates, proceeded from his seminary. Consulted as an oracle by popes and princes, Bernard lived to see 160 convents arise, the members of which acknowledged him their supreme head. When the fanatical monk Raoul preached the extermination of the Jews, he opposed him; but the crusades he considered in the most favourable light, and kings and nobles, at his sole suggestion, ventured their lives in the Holy Land

during the second war. As an author, St. Bernard has been classed amongst the first of ancient Theologians.

SOVEREIGNS. *East. Empire.* 1118, John II. Comnenus ; 1143, Manuel Comnenus. *Popes.* 1130, Innocent II. ; 1143, Celestine II. ;

1144, Lucius II. ; 1145, Eugenius III. ; 1153, Anastasius IV. *Scotland.* 1114, David ; 1143, Malcolm IV. *France.* 1108, Louis VI. (the Fat) ; 1137, Louis VII. *Germany (or West).* 1125, Lotharius II. ; 1138, Conrad III. ; 1152, Frederick I. (Barbarossa).

SECTION V.

STEPHEN, KING OF ENGLAND.

1153 TO 1154—1 YEAR.

Stephen, son of the count of Blois and Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, was born 1105 ; and by his wife Matilda, daughter of the count of Boulogne, had three sons and a daughter, one of whom alone survived him, *William*, who succeeded him as count of Boulogne. Matilda, who appears to have been an amiable and pious woman, died at Henningham castle, Essex, 1151. Stephen was of a fine person, of great courage, ingenuous, and frank. His vices arose out of his situation as an usurper ; and were of course the result of his ambition, his ingratitude, and his want of faith to his early benefactor, Henry. He was inclined to lenity, if we regard his edict to restrain rapine and violence ; and although constantly engaged in scenes of tumult, no act of oppression is recorded of him.

The treaty which finally gave Stephen undisputed possession of the crown, was signed at Wallingford, Berks ; and he bound himself thereby to make his surviving son, William, content with the inheritance of his continental territory. But he was not long permitted to enjoy his ill-acquired elevation : in a year after the signing of the agreement, he was seized with an inflammatory fever, of which he died at Dover, aged 50, 1154. He was buried by the side of his wife, Matilda, in Feversham abbey, which he had built.

England suffered great miseries during Stephen's usurpation ; the intestine disorders to which it gave rise being in the last degree ruinous and destructive. The court of Rome was also enabled, during those civil wars, to make further encroachments ; and appeals to the pope, which had always been strictly prohibited by the English laws, became now common in every ecclesiastical controversy.

England under the Normans. The character of the Anglo-Saxons was necessarily ameliorated by the Norman rule. The introduction of the comparatively refined manners of the continent abated their roughness ; the obligation to acquire the French tongue extended their taste for literature ; the restraints of the feudal system compelled them to obedience and deference ; the introduction of artisans from Flanders restored the Roman arts o

building and agriculture ; and the frequent communication with Normandy encouraged shipping, and laid the foundation of English commerce. The introduction, moreover, of a spirit of chivalry, by the breaking out of the crusades, established the tournament as a frequent exercise, and induced a degree of polish, which in no subsequent period of our history has been wholly lost by the better classes of society. From our early historians,

it appears that the Norman gentry had but two meals in the day : these consisted of substantial cheer at nine in the morning, and at five in the afternoon.

PERIOD THE TWELFTH.

The House of Plantagenet.

1154 TO 1399 — 245 YEARS.

SECTION I.

HENRY II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1154 TO 1189—35 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry was born at Mans, 1133, and married Eleanor daughter of the duke of Guienne, the repudiated wife of Louis VII. of France, by whom he had four sons and three daughters. His son *Henry* died of a fever at Martel ; *Richard* and *John* succeeded him on the throne ; and *Geoffrey*, killed in a tournament at Paris, left a son, named Arthur. Henry was of a middle stature, with blue eyes, and a ruddy complexion. He was brave, accomplished, a patron of learning, prudent, polite, and generous ; irascible on occasion, but readily forgiving. In his general converse he was lively, courteous, and facetious ; and so considerate was he for the poor, that he devoted a tenth of his household provisions to their service. His neglect of the queen was his greatest error : but Eleanor's fame was sullied before Louis repudiated her, and, far from meekly bearing her injuries, she incited her sons, Geoffrey and Richard, to demand a share of their father's throne, and even engaged the king of France to aid them in forcing his compliance. Her conduct originated in the favour shown to her rival, Rosamond, daughter of lord Clifford ; and it is said that, when she discovered her retreat in the labyrinth of Woodstock-park, Oxfordshire, she forced her, by holding a dagger to her breast, to swallow poison.

Political History. Henry commenced without delay a reformation of the state. To reduce within moderate bounds the power of the barons, he ordered the demolition of many of their castles ; and, bestowing charters upon towns, gave over that portion of strength to the lower grades which he had exacted from the higher. His next aim was to bring the ecclesiastics under control. The English clergy, in conformity with the general design of the papal government, had held themselves independent of the civil power ; and to keep in check this dangerous principle, Henry promoted Thomas à Becket, the son of a London merchant, who had openly supported his cause during the usurpation of Stephen, first to the high office of Chancellor, and then to the dignity of archbishop of Canterbury, in which latter capacity he was, by the usage of the day, chief minister, in temporal as well as spiritual affairs. But no sooner had Becket been advanced to the head of the church, than he advocated the right of the clergy to try criminals of their own order. Henry, however, in a council of nobles at Clarendon, Wilts, obtained, in an edict called the constitutions of Clarendon, a law which enforced the trial in civil courts of clergymen convicted of crimes, and forbade the trial of laymen in spiritual courts,

without witnesses of a legal kind. Pope Alexander having espoused the archbishop's cause, Becket fled to Rome; but while the king was in Normandy, the prelate returned, and was received in his progress to London with that general joy which, in the days of papal influence, every nation exhibited, when convinced that the church would sanction its proceedings. When some persons, whom Becket had deprived of office, arrived in Normandy to complain to the king, Henry's wrath burst forth in all its fury; and some attendants, gathering from his expressions that the death of the archbishop would be grateful to him, four knights, who had been commanded to remonstrate with Becket, hastened to England, and, accompanying him to vespers in his cathedral at Canterbury, murdered him at the altar of St. Benedict. Nothing could exceed Henry's consternation when he heard of this catastrophe; and, on his arrival in England, he did penance, by walking barefoot three miles to Becket's tomb, and by submitting to be scourged thereat by the monks, who granted him absolution after he had passed a day and night fasting upon the bare stones.

To divert the nation from the contemplation of so atrocious a deed, Henry resolved to take up the cause of Mac Morough, king of Leinster, in his war with the king of Meath; and sending over to Ireland Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, that nobleman made him and the other four petty monarchs of the island tributary to the English crown; insomuch that, upon Henry's arrival, 1172, he found the whole country subdued to his hand. From that period to the present has Ireland formed a portion of the British empire. The coincidence of a victory over the Scotch, and the capture of their sovereign, William, on the day that the king had received absolution at Canterbury, occasioned a favourable turn in public opinion, and affairs were about to wear a better aspect, when the rebellion of prince Richard again threw them into confusion. That headstrong youth incited Philip II. of France to invade Normandy; and was so unnatural as to take a command himself in so unjust an aggression. When Henry, on coming to terms with Philip, ascertained that his favourite son, John, had also been in the ranks of his opponent, he broke forth into expressions of the utmost despair, cursed the hour of his birth, and was soon after attacked by a low fever, whereof he died suddenly, when at his devotions, at Chinon, in Normandy, aged 58, 1189. His ungrateful attendants stripped his body, and left it naked in the church; but it was afterwards interred at Fontevraud, in Anjou.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Judges' Circuits established. In 1176, England was divided by Henry into six circuits, for the better administration of justice throughout the kingdom. These circuits are now eight—The Home Circuit, Oxford, Midland, Norfolk, Northern, Western, South Wales, and North Wales, and two judges preside together in each. Circuits, or gaol deliveries, as they are technically called, are, in fact, visits to the respective county gaols, wherein malefactors have been incarcerated, and take place twice in the year.

The Conquest of Ireland. Ireland was added to England, 1172; and is now divided into four provinces and

thirty-two counties, as follows:—9. *North.* (Ulster.) Londonderry, Donegal, Monaghan, Tyrone, Antrim, Armagh, Fermanagh, Down, Cavan. 5. *West.* (Connaught.) Mayo, Roscommon, Leitrim, Sligo, Galway. 12. *East.* (Leinster.) King's County, Dublin, Louth, Queen's County, Carlow, Longford, Wexford, Wicklow, Kilkenny, East-Meath, Kildare, West-Meath. 6. *South.* (Munster.) Kerry, Tipperary, Cork, Clare, Limerick, Waterford.

Law respecting Wrecks. It having been hitherto the barbarous custom to confiscate to the use of the coast-residents, or rather to that of the liege-lord, all ships which had been wrecked,

Henry passed a law which is yet in force, enacting, that if a man or animal be found alive on board the vessel, the ship and goods should be restored to the owners.

London first Paved, and the houses

in that city ordered to be unthatched.

An Earthquake in England overthrew Lincoln and other churches, 1185, just at the period of an almost total eclipse of the sun.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Denmark raised to Importance. Valdemar, afterwards called the Great, who obtained the sovereignty in 1157, by killing his competitor Swen, maintained a long war with the Vandals, whose power he at last entirely broke; proved victorious over the Norwegians, so that their king and queen came in person to submit to him; laid the foundation of the city of Dantzic, 1165; and was invested with the duchy of Holstein by the emperor Barbarossa.

Foundation of Moscow, 1158, by Andrej, sovereign of the Russes; and the people were henceforward known by the appellation of Muscovites, rather than of Russians, until the eighteenth century.

Rise of the Waldenses. These primitive opponents of the Romish hierarchy (see Peter Waldo, page 222), founded a church little different in doctrine and discipline from that of England, 1160. The corruption of the mother church at that period was great indeed; the monks were enriched by the sale of pretended relics, the bishops by the commutation of ecclesiastical penalties for money, and the pope by the sale of indulgences, and of exemptions from penance and purgatory. Nor was this all: a fund of merit, an accumulation of the supererogatory labours of good men, was said to have been placed by heaven at the disposal of the pontiff; who, thus endowed, could, by transfer, make the guiltiest of men holy. Waldo's disciples rapidly increased, and neither fire, nor sword, nor the terrors of the inquisition, could quench their zeal.

Sardinia made a Kingdom, by the emperor Barbarossa, 1164. The island so called is now only part of the kingdom of Sardinia, whose capital, Turin, is in Italy. The isle had its name

from Sardus, a son of Hercules, who colonized it with Lybians. The Carthaginians possessed it for some years: and the Romans took it from them in the Punic wars. One poisonous herb alone was found here, which, being eaten, contracted the nerves of the face into a ghastly smile, *risus Sardonicus*, the Sardonian grin, and precursor of death.

Fall of the Futimite Dynasty. In 1171, on the death of Al Aded, the last kaliph of Egypt of the house of Mahomet, Saladin, his Tartar vizier, seized on all his valuable effects, and was acknowledged sovereign; not by the title of kaliph, but by that of sultan, an appellation which the Moslem rulers have continued to the present time.

Building of the Tower of Pisa. This tower, erected in 1174, has now become one of the architectural wonders of the world. Its height is 190 feet, and it is supposed to have settled long after its completion, as there are frescoes extant of a much later date than the tower, representing it upright. Its summit overlays the perpendicular from the base fifteen English feet. It is composed of nine galleries, each surrounded by columns of marble and granite, whence arches spring, which support the entablatures of each gallery: above 200 columns are thus employed. Stairs lead to the summit, whence the view of Pisa and the surrounding country is very fine. On the highest gallery is placed a bell, rung on all occasions of public alarm; and is the same that tolled the signal of the revolution which led to the dreadful fate of Ugolino, immortalized by Dante.

Venice constituted Ruler of the Adriatic. The emperor Barbarossa

sent ambassadors to the Venetian doge, 1177, declaring that if he did not deliver up to him pope Alexander, his enemy, who had taken refuge in his city, he would deluge Venice with the blood of its citizens. The intrepid Ziani, then doge, spurned these threats; and, with a very inferior naval force, vanquished on the Istrian coast a large German fleet under the command of Otho, the emperor's son. On the doge's return, the pope went out to meet him, and presented him with a ring, saying, 'Take this, Ziani, and give it to the sea, as a testimony of your dominion over her. Let your successors annually perform the same ceremony, that posterity may know your valour has purchased this prerogative, and subjected the Adriatic to you, even as a husband subjecteth his wife.' The doge had taken Otho prisoner in the action, and Barbarossa was so much gratified by Ziani's respectful treatment of his son, that he was induced to visit Venice, and grant it extraordinary privileges.

The Third Crusade. Saladin, the usurper of Egypt, having destroyed Jerusalem, 1187, the young princes

and peers of Christendom considered the moment an auspicious one for a third expedition to the Holy Land. Accordingly Barbarossa, Frederick duke of Suabia, and Leopold duke of Austria, marched with their allies into Syria; and while an ineffectual attempt to take Acre was making by Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, Philip II. of France, and Richard I. of England, arrived in Palestine, and augmented the Christian forces to 300,000 men. But great disputes soon arose between Philip and Richard; in consequence of which the former returned to France, and Richard concluded a peace with Saladin.

Rebellions in the Eastern Empire. The eastern empire, reduced to a state equally degrading with that of the western before its dissolution, now received its rulers from the army, and saw them deposed almost as soon as they were elected. Andronicus had murdered Alexis, and assumed the crown; and he in turn was put to death, 1185, by Isaac Angelus, who in 1195 was supplanted by his own brother Alexis.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Thomas à Becket, having completed his education at Oxford, was sent by Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, to solicit the pope's opposition to the succession of Eustace, the son of Stephen. Henry noticed him on account of the zeal he had displayed in this matter; and Becket became his private friend as well as political adviser, accompanying him in his campaign to Toulouse, 1159, and having in his own pay 700 knights and 1200 horsemen. When complaints of his tyranny were brought to Henry in Normandy, the king is reported to have turned to his attendants with the following expressions: 'Is there no one of the lazy crew of cowardly knights whom I maintain, that will rid me of this turbulent priest, who came to court but to other day on a lame horse, with nothing but his wallet behind him?'

whereon four of those knights, Fitzurse, de Tracy, de Morvil, and Brito, without further converse with Henry, departed for England, and were soon in the presence of the prelate. At the altar, whither they accompanied him, they suddenly announced to him their design, but promised he should be spared, if he would cease his opposition to royal authority. Becket, however, magnanimously exclaimed, 'I am ready to die for the rights of the church; but I charge you, in the name of the Almighty, hurt no other here; for none of these about me have any concern in the late transactions.' They tried upon this to drag him from the altar; but as he resisted, three of the knights pierced him with their daggers, while the fourth clove his head with a mace. He never opposed them, beyond his struggle to remain at the

altar, by word or deed ; and fell without a groan. Two years after death he was canonized, and miracles abounded at his tomb. In the reign of Henry III. his body was placed in a magnificent shrine erected by archbishop Langton ; and Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* prove how numerous and devoted, and in many cases illustrious, were the pilgrimages to his tomb.

Adrian IV. (or Nicholas Breakspere), the only Englishman who ever sat in the papal chair, was born at Langley, Herts. Poverty obliged him to travel among the monasteries of the continent ; and, from being a monk of Avignon, he rose to a cardinalship and the papacy. He excommunicated the king of Sicily, and compelled Barbarossa, who had entered Italy in arms, to hold his stirrup before he would crown him. Adrian, who had long owned the vanity of all worldly objects of desire, died choked by a fly, 1159.

Louis VII. of France. The feudal laws enabled each noble to raise, at his pleasure, a band of soldiers out of his own tenantry ; and the kings of France were, in consequence, perpetually harassed by opposition to their government. This was particularly the case with Louis VII. ; who, in a contest with his peers, unwillingly caused the destruction of 1300 persons at Vitri. Taking the catastrophe greatly to heart, Louis projected, by St. Bernard's advice, the second crusade. While in Palestine, he was displeased with the conduct of his queen Eleanor ; and having divorced her on his return, she became the wife of Henry II. of England, who was ever afterwards on ill terms with the French respecting her dower. It was in the reign of Louis that at the town of Alby a religious sect, called the Albigenses, arose. As they rejected many of the errors of the Roman church, the popes did all in their power to subdue them ; and Innocent III. established a tribunal to try and punish them, which afterwards became the inquisition. Louis died soon after having made a pilgrimage to the shrine of Becket, 1180.

Saladin Ayoub, one of the most renowned of the Tartar race, commenced in Egypt the dynasty of Ayoub. His great object was the expulsion of the Christians from Palestine, and the recovery of Jerusalem, which latter he effected, 1187. When Barbarossa lost his life in the Cydnus, Saladin began to look for peace ; but the arrival of Richard of England and Philip of France damped his hopes, and occasioned him fresh losses of men and property. At length a truce was concluded between Richard and the sultan, by the terms of which the coast from Jaffa to Tyre was ceded to the Christians. Saladin was noted for his probity, piety, and talent. He never broke a promise, was a conscientious worshipper according to his creed, and was the first Moslem monarch who withstood, with ability and effect, the united attempts of Christendom to ruin his empire. The Tartar house of Ayoub was now the only powerful representative of that of Mahomet ; and even the kaliph of Bagdad was its tributary.

Saadi, a famous poet and moralist of Persia, passed thirty years in study, thirty in travelling, and thirty in acts of devotional piety. He made forty pilgrimages to Mecca on foot ; and his sovereign, Kerim Khan, built a tomb to his memory at Shiraz. His moral maxims have acquired the force of laws amongst the modern Persians. Persia was, in Saadi's time, under the sway of one of those usurpers, who every now and then wrested the country from the Saracens during the decline of their empire, and held it until supplanted by some more powerful chieftain.

Frederick I., surnamed Barbarossa, became western emperor after his uncle Conrad III. He passed into Italy, 1155, where, after some difficulty, he obtained consecration from Adrian IV. All his offences against the holy see were forgiven when he undertook his crusade against Saladin ; and he was proceeding against the Turks in Cilicia, 1159, when death put a period to his career. Having imprudently bathed

in the cold waters of the Cydnus, where the great Alexander had once nearly fallen a sacrifice, he was seized with apoplexy, and instantly expired.

Manco Capac founded the Peruvian empire in South America, 1162, of which we have no other record than the tradition of the natives. This person and *Mamaoella*, his wife, are said to have appeared suddenly in an island of the lake *Titiaca*, and to have declared themselves children of the sun, sent down to civilize the people. *Manco* accordingly taught them agriculture, and his wife to spin and weave; and he was declared the first Inca, or king.

Strongbow, earl of Pembroke and Strigul, of whom little is known beyond the anecdotes of Hibernian historians. The following one, explanatory of the epitaph on his tomb in Christ church, Dublin, which sets forth the ingratitude of his son, 'who, in turning his back upon his father, turned it upon his friends and his country,' gives us some notion of the man. When the earl was marching to Wexford to relieve Fitz-Stephen, he was briskly assaulted by O'Brian and his followers; but O'Brian being slain by an arrow, the rest were easily scattered. It was there that Strongbow's only son, a youth of seventeen, alarmed by the ululations of the Irish, ran away from the battle; but when informed of his father's victory, he joyfully came back to congratulate him. The severe general, however, having first reproached him with cowardice, caused him, as a terrible example of military discipline, to be executed in his presence, causing him to be severed by a sword through the waist.

Peter Waldo, born at Vaux in Dauphiny, acquired a large fortune by commerce in silk, at Lyons; after which, devoting himself to works of piety, he became the founder of the sect of Waldenses. As he affirmed that both men and women were permitted by the Scriptures to conduct the offices of public worship, without

the intervention of the clergy, his doctrine was condemned by the council of Lateran, 1179; and being himself compelled to quit Lyons, he took refuge, with numerous followers, in Dauphiny and Piedmont; whence his tenets spread throughout Europe. The Waldenses, however, were every where exterminated but in the valleys of Piedmont, where they still subsist, having thirteen churches, and a population of 20,000 souls. The last lineal descendant of the founder, Peter Waldo, Esq., of Mitcham, Surrey, died so lately as 1803; and was long known for his firm support of the church of England, and his general worth.

Henry of Huntingdon, author of a history of England to Stephen's death; *Peter Lombard*, bishop of Paris, called master of the sentences, on account of his four books of sentences, a once highly popular work, illustrating the doctrines of the church by passages from the various fathers; *Geoffrey of Monmouth*, who wrote a chronicle of the Britons, translated chiefly from the Armorican or Bretagne tongue, in which are many fabulous tales of king Arthur; *Abdullatif*, an Arabian under Saladin, who wrote an excellent history of Egypt, only lately translated into French; *Ranulph Glanville*, who, as justiciary of England, repelled the invasion of William of Scotland, and wrote a Latin treatise on the laws and usages of England, highly prized by modern jurisconsults.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire*. 1143, Manuel Comnenus; 1180, Alexis II., Comnenus; 1183, Andronicus Comnenus; 1185, Isaac Angelus. *Popes*. 1154, Adrian IV.; 1159, Alexander III.; 1181, Lucius III.; 1185, Urban III.; 1187, Gregory VIII.; 1187, Clement III. *Scotland*. 1143, Malcolm IV.; 1157, William I. *France*. 1137, Louis VII.; 1180, Philip Augustus. *Denmark*. 1157, Valdemar the Great; 1182, Canute VI. the Pious. *Portugal*. 1112, Alphonso I.; 1185, Sancho I. *Germany* (or *West*). 1152, Fred. I. (Barbarossa).

SECTION II.

RICHARD I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1189 TO 1199—10 YEARS.

Personal History. Richard I. was born at Oxford, 1157, and married Beengaria, daughter of Sanchez, king of Navarre, 1191, but left no issue by her. He was tall and graceful, fair and well-proportioned: his eyes were blue, and his hair auburn. He had prodigious strength of body, and intrepidity of mind: his penetration was vivid and accurate, and he possessed a fund of manly eloquence, as well as of easy and jocular repartee. On the other hand, he was vindictive, cruel, avaricious, and most undutiful to his parent; and his love of glory made him think the crusades more important than the government of his kingdom; wherein he was only eight months during a reign of ten years. His known defiance of danger was such, that the Saracens, when opposing him, would say to their restiff horses, 'What do you start at; do you think you see king Richard?' Nor was his industry as a mere soldier less remarkable; for when the walls of Acre lay in ruins, he not only laboured in person, but appointed hours for other generals to work at the head of their men. All cheerfully obeyed but the duke of Austria, who told the king 'that his father having been neither bricklayer nor mason, he had not learned either business.' Richard hereupon tore down the Austrian standard, and was proceeding to eject the duke from the tent, when king Philip put an end to the strife. This feud was the cause of Richard's subsequent captivity. His turn for satire was displayed on occasion of the pope's demanding the release of the bishop of Beauvais, a relative of the French king, whom Richard had made prisoner after his return from Palestine. The pope having claimed him as his son, Richard sent to his holiness the coat of mail which the prelate had worn, besmeared as it was with blood; together with a message in the terms employed by Jacob's sons to that patriarch, 'This have we found: know now whether it be thy son's coat or no.' In literature Richard made some figure, being author of several of those interesting ballads of Provence, which laid the foundation of our metrical romances, and rendered the troubadours, or wandering minstrels of the period, so famous. Richard's title of *cœur-de-lion* is stated in those serventes to have been derived from his contest with a lion, wherein he put his hand down the beast's throat and tore out his heart.

Political History. Richard, on coming to the crown, evinced his sorrow for his filial errors, by dismissing from his person all who had encouraged his undutiful conduct. He gave his brother John a portion of Normandy (who, as the king's youngest son, had no land; whence his surname of *sans-terre*); and then prepared for his expedition to the Holy Land. His people caught the spirit of the crusades; and, on the day of his coronation, commenced a persecution of the Jews in London, which ended in a dreadful massacre of that people in all the cities of the kingdom; their wealth being the main object of pursuit, and their original connexion with Palestine being the plea for seizing it. In York alone 500 of them, who had retired into the castle, but found themselves unable to defend the place, murdered their own wives and children, and, setting fire to the houses, perished in the flames.

Richard having appointed Hugh, bishop of Durham, and Longchamp, bishop of Ely, guardians of the realm, hastened, in 1190, to meet Philip of France at Vezelay, where their combined army amounted to 100,000 men. Putting then to sea with their respective fleets, they were obliged to run into Messina for shelter from the furious weather. Richard's sister, Joan, widow

of William, king of Sicily, resided here; and she followed him from the island in another vessel, together with his intended consort, Berengaria; but a storm drove her ship on Cyprus, where Isaac, prince of the isle, opposed her landing. Richard arriving soon after, took Isaac prisoner, bound him in silver chains, established English governors over the place, married Berengaria, and re-embarked with his queen and sister for Palestine. Acting as generalissimo of the French and English armies, he took Acre, and made the Saracen garrison surrender what was alleged to be the real cross of Christ: and when Philip, jealous of his superiority, quitted Syria to return home, he continued his victorious career, and took Ascalon, after a most severe contest, the Saracens losing 40,000 on the field. Richard had arrived within sight of Jerusalem when he found his men wholly dispirited; whereupon he made a truce with Saladin for three years, months, weeks, days, and hours (according to Saracen form), by which all Christians were permitted to perform their pilgrimages to the holy city, and the sea-coast was to remain in their hands.

Richard set sail for England 1193; but being wrecked on the coast of Aquileia, resolved on travelling through Germany in the disguise of a pilgrim. His expensive living had been noticed in the towns through which he passed; but when his page was seen in Vienna with his master's jewelled gloves at his girdle, information was given to duke Leopold of Austria (whom he had offended at Acre) who seized and gave him up to Henry VI., the western emperor. For fifteen months he was confined in the castle of Durnstein; and was then surrendered to the English, on payment of 300,000*l.* of our present money, raised by the melting of the monastic plate, and by the willing contributions of the nobles and clergy. It is stated in the Troubadour songs, that the place of his imprisonment was discovered by Blondel, his favourite minstrel, who wandered through Germany with his lute, and playing in the precincts of the castle, was replied to in the same strain by the king.

The joyous manner in which Richard was received by his people was highly gratifying to his martial spirit; but he was sorely wounded on discovering that his brother John had secretly plotted with the emperor to detain him for life, in order that he might occupy his throne. John escaped to France on hearing of his return, and joined the standard of Philip to seize on Normandy. After a short stay in England, during which he was crowned anew at Winchester, the king crossed to France, burning with rage against Philip, who, as soon as he heard of Richard's freedom, had written to his confederate, John, in these terms: 'Take care of yourself: the devil is broken loose.' No great conflict, however, ensued; and when Richard had captured a few French towns, conferences were held for an accommodation. John, meanwhile, had deserted the side of Philip, to throw himself repentantly at his brother's feet; and at the solicitation of queen Eleanor, was received again into favour. 'I forgive him,' said the king, 'and only hope I shall as easily forget his injuries as he will my pardon!' Not long after the treaty with France had been signed, Richard received an apology from the duke of Austria, and the emperor, for their harsh conduct towards him. The former, on his deathbed, expressed his regret: and the latter offered to remit that portion of the ransom yet unpaid, if the king would enter with him into an offensive alliance against Philip. The consequence was another breach with the French monarch.

It was in 1199 that Richard besieged his vassal, the viscount de Limoges, in his castle of Chalus, for his refusal to yield a treasure-trove to his superior lord; and having approached the building to reconnoitre, one Gourdon wounded him in the shoulder, from a lancet-window, with an arrow. The place, however, was taken, and the garrison, all save Gourdon, hanged; him

Richard commanded into his presence, and asking him why he had attempted his life, the soldier boldly replied, 'Because you slew my father and my two brothers; and I glory in ridding the world of such a tyrant!'—'Let him go!' said the dying king, 'he says well;' but Marcadee, leader of the Bretonçons, slayed him alive, and then hanged him. On ascertaining that he could not survive, Richard desired his body to be buried at the feet of his father at Fontevraud, bitterly lamenting his early conduct to him; his bowels he ordered to be interred at Chalus, amongst the rebellious Poitevins; and his heart at Rouen, as a mark of his approval of the loyalty of its citizens. Richard died in the forty-second year of his age.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

High Price of Wheat. From the then imperfect mode of cultivation, wheat sold, 1192, at 6*l.* of our present money the quarter, a price most exorbitant, if we reflect upon the low rate of population at the period. Five years after, there was no crop whatever; and a grievous famine ensued.

English Bandits. The police laws were so inefficient in this reign, that even in London one Fitz-Osbert, called Longbeard, a lawyer, rendered himself formidable by plundering the houses of the rich; and when called before the chief justiciary, he came so well attended that no one durst ques-

tion him. He was, however, eventually hanged; when the poor, with whom he was a favourite, stole his gibbet, and paid the utmost veneration to it. Robin Hood, in Sherwood Forest, Nottinghamshire, held the country, at the same period, under contribution, maintained a complete army under the command of his general, little John, and long continued the terror of the kingdom. Some authors assert that Robin was no other than Robert, earl of Huntingdon, whom the malice of his enemies had banished from court.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Rise of the Troubadours. These inventors of romance had their origin in the first crusade; but in Richard's time they reached to great fame. They first appeared in Provence, and at the courts of their munificent patrons were treated with great respect; the ladies, whose charms they celebrated, giving them ever the most flattering reception. Disregarding classical authority, they constructed their sirventes on plans of their own; and this may account for their sudden declension when a taste for genuine poetry revived. The Provençals, whose language, in Richard's time, was the general vehicle of poetry and prose to all who were ignorant of Latin, demand our gratitude on many accounts. In their simple songs no time indeed is marked, and but little variety of notation appears; yet it is not difficult to discover in them the germs of the

future melodies and poetry of both France and Italy. Almost every species of Italian versification is derived from the Troubadours; while *air*, the most captivating portion of secular vocal music, seems to have had the same origin; and it is acknowledged that the most ancient strains are such as were set to their songs.

Coats of Arms became now the distinguishing marks of families. The knights in the crusades, being cased up in armour, had no way of making themselves known but by the devices on their shields; and these were gradually adopted by their posterity, who were proud of the pious and military enterprises of their ancestors. Richard adopted as his emblem three lions passant, which are still kept on the royal shield of England.

The Lusignan Dispute. Guy de Lusignan and Conrade, marquis of

Montserrat, having each laid claim to the titular kingdom of Jerusalem, Richard terminated the dispute by bestowing Cyprus, which he had taken from Isaac, upon Lusignan. The family line of Godfrey de Bouillon had ended in a female, whom the grandfather of Henry II. of England married. The issue of this marriage again ended in a female, who married Lusignan; and she dying without issue, the younger sister put in her claim in favour of her husband, the marquis of Montserrat. Conrad took up his residence in Sidon, when Jerusalem had again fallen to the Saracens; and here he became involved in a dispute with the prince of the Assassins, who, sending two of his subjects to Sidon, stabbed him openly in the street. The king of France, from his jealous hatred of Richard, declared that monarch to have been the instigator of the deed; an accusation which was the principal cause of Richard's hostility towards Philip, on his return from the Holy Land.

Teutonic Knights founded. When Barbarossa went to the Holy Land, he

was followed by crowds of German volunteers; and their conduct in the crusade was so heroic, that Pope Celestine III. in 1191, gave them great privileges, with the title of Teutonic knights of the hospital of St. Mary, which they had founded on mount Zion for the relief of German pilgrims. The Germans were called Teutones, because of their descent from a tribe of that people, formerly inhabiting the shores of the Baltic.

The Fourth and Fifth Crusades. The fourth was undertaken 1195, by the emperor Henry VI. after Saladin's death. In this expedition the Christians took many towns; but on the death of the emperor, who was poisoned by his wife Constance 1197, they were obliged to return hastily to Germany. The fifth began 1198, by an order of pope Innocent III. Simon de Montfort and other valiant men engaged in it; and Dandolo, doge of Venice, with Boniface, marquis of Montserrat joined it 1202; but the plague breaking out, the sultan of Aleppo expelled the main Christian army, 1204.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Longchamp, bishop of Ely, joint-regent of England in the absence of Richard, imprisoned his colleague, Hugh, bishop of Durham, and ruled the kingdom with severity. John, however, leagued against him with the barons; and he was obliged to escape beyond sea. So dignified was Longchamp, that he never travelled without 1500 foreign soldiers as a guard; while nobles and knights were proud to enter into his train.

Iscauus, a divine of Exeter, who accompanied Richard to the Holy Land, and recorded his exploits in an epic poem now lost, with the exception of a few beautiful lines. Warton

styles him the miracle of his age in classical composition. His poem on the Trojan war is extant, and was long thought the work of Cornelius Nepos.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.* 1185, Isaac Angelus; 1195, Alexis III. *Popes.* 1187, Clement III. 1191, Celestine III.; 1198, Innocent III. *Scotland.* 1157, William I. *France.* 1180, Philip Augustus. *Denmark.* 1182, Canute VI. *Portugal.* 1185, Sancho I. *Germany (or West).* 1152, Frederick I.; 1190, Henry VI.; 1197, Philip I. of Swabia with Otho IV.

SECTION III.

JOHN, KING OF ENGLAND.

1199 TO 1216—17 YEARS.

Personal History. John was born at Oxford, 1166, and married first Isabel, daughter of the earl of Gloucester whom he divorced; and then Isabel, daughter of Aymer, count of Angoulesme, by whom he had *Henry III.*; *Richard*, king of the Romans; *Jane*, married to Alexander, king of Scotland; *Eleanor*, wife of Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester; and *Isabella*, wife of Frederick II., emperor of Germany. John was of a good figure and agreeable countenance; but his character was marked by cowardice, licentiousness, ingratitude, and cruelty. As a son and brother he was atrocious. He may have been too hastily accused of the murder of his nephew, Arthur; that he imprisoned him is certain; and, in such ill favour was his name, that the chroniclers of the day were glad to add to and magnify his offences. As an instance of his rapacity, it is recorded, that having once demanded 10,000 marks of a Jew of Bristol in vain, he ordered one of the man's teeth to be drawn each day, until he should comply. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the required sum.

Political History. John had scarcely taken possession of the throne, when Philip of France opposed him in favour of Arthur; on the ground that the feudal law acknowledged primogeniture. But as the feudal enactments were only gradually obtaining the respect of the English nation, the king's right to nominate his successor, provided he was of his own family, was not for a moment questioned by his subjects; and Philip soon left Arthur, now duke of Brittany, to fight his own battle. That young prince, seventeen years of age, finding that queen Eleanor, his grandmother (the mother of John), was residing in the ruinous fortress of Mirebeau, in Poitou, laid siege to the place; and John, hearing of this aggression, hastened from Normandy, fell upon him unawares, and took him prisoner. When the king summoned him to his presence, in the castle of Falaise, he was surprised to hear him fearlessly pronounce him an usurper, and claim England and Normandy as his own; and as no more was heard of this prince beyond his return to prison, it was asserted, amongst other versions of the story, that the king, having first put out his eyes, stabbed him with his own hand. Philip, who was always too happy to excite disturbances in England, scrupled not to affirm that John, like his brother Richard, was a murderer, and unworthy the affection of his subjects; and invading Normandy, recovered not only what the Norman kings had gradually abstracted from the French crown, but even the ancient inheritance of the conqueror himself. In 1206, John having denied the right of pope Innocent III. to nominate to the see of Canterbury, the kingdom was put under an interdict by that pontiff; by which it was suddenly deprived of all the exterior marks of religion. The altars were despoiled of their ornaments; the crosses, relics, images, and statues of the saints, were displaced; the bells were taken from the steeples; the laity partook of no religious rites but baptism and extreme unction; the dead were thrown into ditches, or interred in the common fields, without prayers; marriage was celebrated in the churchyard; and the people were forbidden to eat meat, to salute each other, and to shave their beards. The king, when all this took place, confiscated the estates of such as chose to obey the papal mandate; and, for several years, the

peace and comfort of the country were disturbed by the conflicts which daily ensued between the partisans of the pope, and the adherents of the sovereign. Meanwhile John was making successful expeditions against Wales, Scotland, and Ireland; and the pope, seeing him regardless of his censures, came to the resolution of excommunicating him, and of dissolving the allegiance of his people. Had John maintained his ground with dignity at this crisis of affairs, he might have achieved the emancipation from papal thralldom, which the eighth Henry, with so poor a plea, long after effected. His natural cowardice, however, prevailed; and rather than risk the vengeance of the holy father, he hastened to Dover to solicit pardon of his legate, Pandulph. In the church of Swingfield, in the presence of the priests and people, John took off his crown, disrobed himself, and laid the ensigns of royalty at the feet of the nuncio; who, seated on a throne, contemptuously trampled under foot the tribute money which John had placed upon the floor, in token of the submission of the kingdom. The exiled clergy, and Cardinal Langton, who had been appointed archbishop of Canterbury by the pope, hereupon returned; and John, going to meet them, threw himself on the ground, and entreated them with tears, to have compassion on his poor estate of England. After settling this vexatious affair, the king crossed to France, to lay siege to a castle near Angiers: and during his absence, Langton endeavoured to unite the barons in demanding a charter, founded on that of Henry I., the provisions of which had been wholly neglected by Richard. John, however, on his return, displayed by the most impetuous bursts of passion his opposition to the proposal; and it was only when the barons appeared in arms under Robert Fitzwalter, that he agreed to meet the claimants at a place afterwards called Runnimeade, between Staines and Windsor, where the parties had separate encampments, like open enemies. A debate of some days' duration ensued; when John, with a suspicious facility, suddenly agreed to sign and seal; and thus gave validity to the famous *Magna Charta*. It was soon discovered that the king had no intention to fulfil the promises thus extorted from him: he had even obtained the sanction of pope Innocent to his refusal; and not only was a prohibitory bull issued, but an armed force arrived from Rome to John's assistance. From Dover to Berwick, the king, with these mercenary troops, laid the provinces waste; and the barons, in despair, offered to make Louis, son of Philip of France, sovereign of England, if he would take up their cause. He accordingly landed with a large force, and would speedily have subdued the island, but for the dissensions which pervaded the allied army. John hastened to meet Louis in Lincolnshire; but in passing thither from Lynn, his road lay along the sea-shore, which was overflowed at high water; and, not choosing the proper moment for his journey, he lost, in the inundation, all his carriages, treasures, and regalia. He reached the castle of Newark, much affected by his loss; and taking, to appease his thirst, an immoderate quantity of peaches and new ale, he was seized with a diarrhœa, which speedily terminated his life, in the forty-ninth year of his age. He was buried in Worcester cathedral, his heart being sent in a golden urn to Fontevraud.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

<p><i>The Signing of Magna Charta</i> by John, June 18, 1215, has long been considered by a people extravagantly fond of liberty, the most glorious event of ancient English history. By it the clergy were allowed to carry on ecclesiastical affairs with reference to the</p>	<p>pope alone; and the barons were enabled to escape the most rigorous points of the feudal laws, which chiefly related to the scutage, and other taxes paid by each knight to the crown, on the marriage of a daughter, the coming to an estate, the sale of lands, or the</p>
--	---

performing of services for the possession of property in land. All the privileges thus granted to the lords of estates, were to be awarded by them to their vassals : a baron could henceforth only call upon his vassals for pecuniary or actual service on the three great feudal accounts, the king's captivity, the marriage of the knight's or baron's eldest daughter, and the knighting of the knight's or baron's eldest son. One weight and measure was established throughout the kingdom. All might go out of and return to the country freely, save the serfs. Every freeman's goods must be disposed of according to the tenour of his will ; and his heirs must succeed should he die intestate. The legal judgment of his peers was necessary to condemn any accused man. Even a villain or rustic could not be deprived of his ploughs, carts, &c., his only means of subsistence, if fined for a fault, and unable at the time to pay. *Runnimede* (the meadow of rune or council), where the deed was signed, was a plain on the south bank of the Thames, of which the present Egham race-course is a portion. The magna charta is still to be seen in the British Museum ; the seal attached to it being in a good state of preservation, and the writing in the old legal engrossing style, in Latin, with many contractions.

London Chartered. The city of London was endowed with municipal rights, and made a political corporation

by Richard. A mayor (major), annually chosen, was placed at the head ; and Henry Fitz-Alwyn was the first. The different trades at the same time began to establish themselves in the form of companies, or small corporate bodies ; wherein every thing advantageous to their respective crafts was promoted.—*A Fire in London* occurred 1212, wherein 3000 persons perished, according to Stowe, and by which the greater portion of the city was destroyed.—*The Cinque Ports*, or five seaport towns of Dover, Hastings, Sandwich, Romney, and Hithe, being places whereat the French, in an invasion, would first attempt to land, were incorporated, endowed with great privileges, and ordered to be kept under the command of some distinguished military character. They have retained their privileges to this day ; and their governor has the title of lord warden. Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford have been added to the list.—*Assize of Bread* ordained : that is, a public price was set upon it according to its weight, and the practice continued until the reign of George IV.—*Sterling Money* was first coined by king John ; in other words, coins exclusively English were fabricated principally in silver pence ; which coins received the name of *esterlings*, from the German artisans who manufactured them. The word *sterling* has now the force of *genuine*.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Origin of the Inquisition. Pope Innocent III. is considered to have originated this tribunal, when punishing the heresy of the Albigenses, 1204.

Seizure of the Eastern Empire by the Venetian-Latins. The emperor Isaac Angelus had been dethroned, but restored by the Latin or Roman soldiers ; and his son Alexius succeeding at his death, John Ducas strangled the young prince with his own hands, and declared himself sovereign. Hereupon the Venetians, aided by their French allies, attacked Constantinople,

1204, drove the usurper out, made Baldwin, count of Flanders, emperor, and for nearly sixty years after kept possession of the city. The Greeks now made Nice their capital ; while Venice, by this important conquest, was raised to its highest point of power.

Foundation of the Mongul Empire. The Tartars had for ages inhabited, in nomad tribes, that long tract of country in northern Asia, extending beneath the modern Siberia, from the Pacific ocean and Kamschatka in the

east, to the Caspian sea in the west. Alanza Khan having subjugated all the tribes, divided the Tartar states at his death into two sovereignties; one of which he gave to his elder son, Tartar, and the other to his younger, Mongul. These states were united into one, and called Mongul, 1206, by Temujin, a general who had succeeded to the Mongul portion in right of his wife, and had dethroned the other or Tartar Khan, Vang. He assumed the title of Jenghis Khan, or most high king; and extended his dominions to 5400 miles in length from east to west, and 3000 in breadth from north to south; China, India, Persia, Cabul, Thibet, and Siberia, being wholly under his sway. He died 1227, after dividing his empire among his sons.

Persecution of the Albigenses. These primitive seceders from the Romish church resided around Toulouse, in Languedoc. In 1209 Innocent III. sent a force to extirpate them, alleging that they professed the doctrines of the Manichees. His captain in this war, which was preached up as a crusade, by Dominic, a monk, was Simon, count de Mountfort, who in one town put 30,000 of them to the sword. They were by no means subdued by Simon; but when Louis VIII. headed an army against them, 1224, (Raimond, count of Toulouse, their chief supporter, being afraid to encounter

him,) all the towns and castles of the Albigenses yielded to the French. Many of this persecuted people died gloriously as martyrs; and the remnant that escaped having joined the Waldenses, from whom they differed little in tenets, the two sects were ever after governed by the same laws.

Foundation of the Franciscans. Francis of Assisi having offended his father, a merchant, by determining to devote his life to religious retirement, was taken before the bishop of Assisi for reproof; when he stripped himself of his clothes, and made a vow of poverty for ever. Having drawn up rules for the direction of his order, Innocent III. sanctioned it, 1214, by the title of the Franciscan Mendicants, or Grey Friars; and such is the catching nature of enthusiasm, that in ten years the founder held a chapter, at which 5000 regularly enrolled monks attended. After a fruitless voyage to the Holy Land, to convert the sultan Meleddin, he returned to Assisi, and died there, aged forty-five, a victim to incessant toil, and unremitting self-mortification. He was canonized by Gregory IX., and the order rose rapidly to great splendour; there being in England alone, at the time of the reformation, eighty of its convents; while very many prelates and several popes had been its members.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Philip II., Augustus of France, reigned from 1180 to 1223. In early life he was the boon companion of Cœur-de-Lion, whom he encouraged to rebel against his father; but the disputes which ensued between them in the Holy Land, laid the foundation of enmity in Philip's bosom, and occasioned him to harass Richard throughout his reign. When John had succeeded to the throne, Philip obtained a grant of the English crown from Innocent III.; and in his first defeat of that monarch, took his supporters, the counts of Flanders and Boulogne, prisoners, and confined them in the castle

of the Louvre, which he had just erected for a state prison. Philip kept a large standing army both in peace and war; and from the sacrifices he made to keep up its *solde* or pay, the term *soldier* began to be applied to all the military mercenaries, not only of France, but of other European states. This intriguing prince, after adding Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Picardy, and Auvergne to his dominions, died, aged 59.

Stephen Langton, archbishop of Canterbury, and a cardinal, divided the bible into chapters and verses. Though appointed by the pope in op-

position to John's wishes, Langton was by no means subservient to Rome; but maintained the dignity of his office, and was a strenuous defender of the liberties of the English church.

Innocent III., one of the most eminent possessors of the chair of St. Peter was raised to it at the early age of thirty-seven. After establishing the inquisition, putting France and England under an interdict, and ravaging Toulouse, he made himself master of Rome, which until now (with the exception of the papal lands) had belonged to the emperor. The senate was no longer that of the Germanic Romans, but of Innocent; and all swore allegiance to him. No one in the papal office, before or since, appears to have had so much influence over the minds of men in power; every European sovereign dreaded him, nor was there one who felt disposed to contend with him beyond a prescribed limit. He was the first pope who maintained the doctrine of the real presence of Christ's body in the consecrated elements of the Lord's supper, and who instituted auricular confession of sins to priests.

Sir John de Courcy, earl of Ulster, having received a grant to enjoy all the lands he could win in Ireland, exempt from charge or tribute saving homage to the king, landed at Howth, and seized upon the surrounding district; but De Lacy, another knight, having informed John that De Courcy had spoken disrespectfully of him, obtained leave to entrap him. So that, in 1203, when the earl, according to the devotion of the time, was walking on Good Friday unarmed and barefoot five times round the church of Downpatrick for penance, he was attacked by De Lacy unawares; and having nothing wherewith to defend himself but the pole of a wooden cross which he carried during the ceremony, he was overpowered, and forced to yield, after slaying thirteen of his assailants with the pole. He was hereupon conveyed to London, and confined in the Tower; but, after a year's imprisonment, an event oc-

curred which gave him his liberty. John and Philip, having agreed to decide their respective claims upon Normandy by single combat between two champions, no one could be found to undertake so hazardous an enterprise but De Courcy, who was brought from the Tower to meet Philip's representative. The day and lists being appointed near Bourdeaux, the two sovereigns anxiously awaited the issue of the battle; and when the trumpet sounded, the champions advanced, and viewed each other attentively. What, however, was the surprise of all, when they saw the French assailant, alarmed by the grim looks and gigantic person of De Courcy, suddenly put spurs to his horse, break through the barrier, and escape into Spain. Philip, hereupon affected to yield to John, and requested that his knight might give them all some signal proof of his prodigious strength. A stake was accordingly set in the ground, and a shirt of mail and a helmet placed thereon: De Courcy drew his sword, 'looked wonderfully stern upon the princes,' and cleft the helmet, shirt of mail, and stake so far, that none was able to pull out the weapon but himself. The princes then asked him why he looked so sour at them? He said, 'if he had missed his blow, he would have cut off both their heads: but all was taken in good part. John gave him great gifts, and restored him his estates: and the lords of Kinsale, his descendants, have still the privilege of wearing their hats in the royal presence, in token of this feat. The immense sword of De Courcy is yet shown in the Tower of London.

Giraldus, called Cambrensis, of high Welsh descent, wrote an *Itinerary of Wales*, often quoted; *Roger de Hoveden*, professor of theology at Oxford, author of *Annals of English History* in Latin, continued from Bede, still consulted for legal precedents.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.* 1195, Alexis III. Angelus; 1203, Isaac Angelus restored; 1204, Alexis IV. and John Ducas; 1204, Nicholas

Canabe; 1204, Alexis V. Latin emperors. 1204, Baldwin, count of Flanders; 1206, Henry; 1216, Peter of Courtenay. *Popes.* 1198, Innocent III.; 1216, Honorius III. *Scotland.* 1157, William I.; 1214, Alexander II. *France.* 1180, Philip Augustus. *Denmark.* 1182, Canute VI. the Pious; 1202, Waldemar II. the Victorious. *Portugal.* 1185, Sancho I.; 1211, Alphonso II. *Germany (or West).* 1197, Philip and Otho IV.; 1208, Otho IV. alone; 1211, Frederick II.

SECTION IV.

HENRY III., KING OF ENGLAND.

1216 TO 1272—56 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry III. was born at Winchester, 1207, and was ever much attached to that city. He married Eleanor, daughter of Raymond, earl of Provence, and had nine children; the most distinguished of whom were *Edward I.* and *Margaret*, wife of Alexander III. of Scotland, whose only child, Margaret, married Eric, king of Norway, by whom she had a daughter, named also Margaret, who was recognised as the successor of her grandfather, Alexander. The death of the last-named princess in the Orkneys, on her way to marry Edward's son, occasioned the famous competition for the crown of Scotland in the next reign. Henry was not tall in person, but robust; his left eyelid dropped so as to cover half the eye. He was inclined to mercy, and attentive to all religious duties; but was weak as a ruler. Relying wholly upon the advice of injudicious favourites, he often acted inconsistently with his dignity and his promise. He was so wanting in economy, that when his eldest daughter married, he sold the jewels out of his crown for a supply of money, and threatened to hang a number of Jews, if they did not provide him with 8000 marks. When they pleaded poverty, he peevishly exclaimed, 'I am a beggar; I am spoiled; I am stripped of my revenues; I owe 300,000 marks, and am obliged to pay my son Edward 15,000 marks a-year; I tell ye I have not a farthing, and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, and by any means.'

Political History. As Henry was only nine when his father died, the earl of Pembroke, a man of talent and integrity, was constituted protector. He confirmed the great charter, and brought the barons generally to unite, and expel the French from the country. Hubert de Burgh, chief justiciary, succeeded to the office at his death; but his influence with the turbulent peers was little, and from 1222 to 1231 many violent disputes disturbed the nation. Peter, bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin, next held the office, and much increased the division by giving appointments to Frenchmen, with a view to counterbalance the power of the barons. Henry himself, now arrived at manhood, contributed to inflame the animosity of the nobles, when after his marriage he invited numerous Provençals of his father-in-law's court to settle in England; while his mother, on her second marriage with the count de la Marche, brought over a crowd of Gascons, and amongst them her own four sons, to be raised to high dignities. The parliament, just now forming itself into a representative council of the nation, began in consequence to withhold supplies; and when Henry, in an useless warfare with Louis IX., lost his few French towns; and leagued with pope Innocent to deprive Mainfroy of Sicily of his crown, for the benefit of his own son, Edmund, Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, brother-in-law of the king, incited the other barons to wrest the

sceptre from his feeble hand. Accordingly, when Henry summoned a parliament, in expectation of receiving money for his Sicilian project, the barons appeared in the place of assembly clad in complete armour; and when the king, on his entry, struck with the unusual appearance, asked 'What was their purpose, and whether he was their prisoner?' Roger Bigod replied in the name of the rest, 'That he was not their prisoner, but their sovereign; that they even wished to aid him in the matter of Sicily, and other projects; but that they expected, in return, he would confer authority on those alone capable of redressing the national grievances.' The king assented, and soon after assembled at Oxford what was termed the mad parliament, because of the confusion which followed its decrees. It enacted that twenty-four barons, elected from the whole, should have unlimited authority to reform the state; an oligarchy which, after an existence of three years, with Leicester at its head, involved the country in civil war.

Prince Edward, the king's eldest son, a youth of singular steadiness, was at this juncture the only hope of the royalists. Leicester, fired with ambition, openly appeared in arms, in conjunction with Llewellyn prince of the Welsh, and ravaged the lands of all who adhered to Henry. A large army, commanded by the king, prince Edward, and the king of the Romans, attacked the rebels at Lewes, in Sussex, 1264; but the royalists were defeated, and the king and his generals made captive. Leicester, now dictator, called the first House of Commons together in the following year, by summoning to meet in London two knights from each shire, and, what is more remarkable, deputies from the borough towns; an order of men which, up to this period, had been regarded as too mean to have a place in the national councils. This assembly commenced with proposing the most tyrannical and democratical acts; but, as its power over the people was small, and its measures were with difficulty enforced, Leicester was obliged, when there was an universal call for the release of prince Edward, to comply with the demand, though he took care to surround him always with a guard of his own creatures. Edward, however, was by no means at a loss to elude the vigilance of his keepers, and was soon at the head of a force which the rebellious earl could not resist. With the greatest alacrity he attacked him at Evesham, near Kenilworth, slew him, and saved his royal father; who, having been placed in armour at the head of the rebel troops, was wounded, and would have fallen, had he not cried out 'I am Henry of Winchester, your king!'

The death of Leicester reinstated Henry, and strengthened as well as enlarged the prerogatives of the crown. The king's clemency on the occasion is very striking: no blood was shed on the scaffold, no attainders except of the Montfort family followed, and the highest sums levied on the most obnoxious rebels exceeded not five years' rental of their estates. Prince Edward, seeing peace restored, undertook an expedition to the Holy Land, 1270, and there revived the glory and terror of the English name in the eighth and last crusade. But the old king, soon after his departure, began to decline in health; and on being seized with sickness at St. Edmondsbury, desired to be removed to Westminster, where he expired, aged sixty-three. He was buried in Edward the Confessor's chapel, Westminster Abbey, built by himself; and his tomb is extant at this time, having large panels of polished porphyry, and being enclosed by mosaic work of scarlet and gold, with the monarch's effigy of the size of life in brass gilt.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Rise of the House of Commons, 1265. | tional council in twain was a manifest
As the necessity for dividing the na- | sign of the decline of the feudal system,

so the establishment of a lower house of assembly, consequent upon that division, mainly contributed to hurry on its fall. The exorbitant estates, conferred by the Norman kings on their retainers, had been long since split into small portions, and become the property of a more numerous and less courtly grade of men; and as the members of this new order were, as well as the knights, immediate vassals of the crown by military tenure, they had sighed for the privilege of holding their conferences on state affairs apart from their superiors, who differed from them as much in sentiments as in rank. Hence the ease with which Leicester formed a house of commons: and, when founded, the circumstances of every day gave strength to that which was essentially *the multitude*, in comparison of the assembly of knights and barons. The great barons were called to their council by special writ, and the small by the sheriff's summons. These last sent to parliament, as their substitutes, men still inferior in rank to themselves; and as Edward found these representatives more easily to be dealt with than their lords, he imitated Leicester's policy, and in 1293 formed what may be called the first legitimate house of commons: at least, the regular sittings of that important body then commenced, and have continued to this

time. The house of commons now consists of 658 members; 489 sitting for England, 24 for Wales, 45 for Scotland, and 100 for Ireland; and, together with the 390 peers of the house of lords, constitutes the British parliament, whose power and jurisdiction are so great, as to have been styled, humanly speaking, *omnipotent*. It has sovereign authority in the making of laws; can regulate and new model the succession to the crown, as was done in the reign of Hen. VIII. and Wm. III.; can alter the established religion, as in the reign of Hen. VIII. and his children; and can change even the constitution of the empire, and of itself, as was done in the acts of union with Scotland and Ireland, in the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections, and in the modern bill of reform.

Robbers were so abundant in England that even juries, and the king's own household, were found to be concerned with felonies; and the necessity for enacting such a law as the following, proves at once how wretched was the state of society in Henry's reign: 'Knights and esquires,' says the Dictum of Kenilworth, 'being robbers, if they have no land, shall pay the half of their goods, and find sufficient security to keep henceforth the peace of the kingdom.'

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Rise of the Dominicans. Don Dominic de Guzman, born in Old Castile, being smitten with a desire to convert the Albigenses, the pope accepted his services; and when he found that mild measures would not effect his point, he, as inquisitor of Languedoc, waged a dreadful war upon these poor people, with fire and sword. While so occupied, he established his order of Preaching or Black Friars, and instituted the mechanical devotion of the rosary, 1217; and the Dominicans and mendicants became from that period the main pillars of the hierarchy. The pope made Dominic master of the palace under himself, creating the

office in reward of his merits. In 1276 the corporation of London granted two streets near the Thames for the erection of a monastery of Dominicans; and the site still bears the name of Black-friars. The third convent of this order was founded in the rue St. Jacques, at Paris; and as its members became celebrated, the Dominican monks were known by the name of *Jacobins*, a title horribly prostituted, from an accidental circumstance, during the French revolution of modern times.

The last three Crusades. The sixth crusade began 1228, under the emperor Frederick II., who arrived in Pa-

lestine two years after, but made peace with the Saracens. In 1240 Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother of Henry III., entered the Holy Land at the head of an English force; but he also made a treaty of peace. The *seventh* was headed by St. Louis, 1249; who, after seizing Damietta, was beaten near Cairo, and saw his army sink under a pestilence. He was at length captured by the Saracens, together with the flower of his nobles. A truce of ten years being agreed on, he and they were set at liberty. The *eighth and last crusade* began 1270 under the same leader, Louis IX., who made himself master of the port and castle of Carthage in Africa, and was investing Tunis when the plague carried him off. Although the French troops gained, after his death, a victory over the Saracen king of Tunis, they did not proceed to Palestine, where prince Edward, the son of Henry III., had already arrived with a small force, to the relief of Acre. Edward, however, being compelled by reports of his father's declining health to return to Europe, the Mamluk sultan of Egypt recovered Acre, and drove the Christians out of Syria, 1291; thus putting an end to a series of wars extending over nearly two centuries.

Foundation of the Kingdom of Granada. This most interesting of all the Moorish states had its rise 1236. Mahomet Abousaid having suppressed a rebellion in the petty kingdoms of Seville and Valencia, seized upon the city of Granada, and declared himself sovereign of all the south-east portion of Spain, from Gibraltar to the town of Lorca; a space of eighty leagues. Ferdinand III. of Leon and Castile at the same period added Cordova, Murcia, Seville, Xeres, and Cadiz to his dominions.

Rise of the Mamluks. The Tartar possessors of Egypt, after the fall of the Fatimites, the last Arab rulers, bought 12,000 male slaves, Georgians and Circassians, bred them to arms, and employed them to defend the

maritime places of the kingdom; the Coobds, or native Egyptians, being considered too indolent for the purpose. Sultan Malek al Salek, the last descendant of Saladin, was deposed and murdered by these slaves (called Mamluks, the Arabic for slaves) 1250; and till 1382 they kept the throne. The government they established was military, and of a republican form; each of the fourteen provinces of Egypt being governed by its own Bey. These lesser chiefs used to assemble in council under a president, called Schaich-el-belled, or chief of the country. In this divan were enacted, by plurality of votes, the decrees for the common welfare of all; and each Bey presided in his own department over their due execution.

Foundation of the College of Sarbonne, a famous school of theology in the university of Paris, by Robert de Sarbonne, almoner of St. Louis; who having had to contend, through his original poverty, with many difficulties, was thus enabled, 1250, to smoothe the path to graduation for such as had not the means of paying for the advantage.

Florence made an independent Republic, 1251; and it became famous for its restoration of the fine arts, especially paintings by Cimabue. The Venus de Medici by the ancient Cleomenes, considered the standard of taste as respects the female form, is still safe from the hand of time in this beautiful city of Italy.

The Order of Celestines founded. Peter de Meuron, born of mean parents, retired when young to a solitary mountain, that he might dedicate himself to prayer and mortification. The fame of his piety brought many to see him, who, charmed with his virtue, renounced the world to be his companions. With these he formed a community, 1254, which Urban IV. erected into an order; but the founder was called from his retreat, 1294, to fill the papal chair as Celestine V. In five months, however, he

resigned an office to which he considered himself unequal; and died, two years after, in his accustomed solitude.

Usurpation of Manfred. The two Sicilies having been seized by Manfred, natural son of the emperor Frederick II., 1254, pope Clement IV. promised the crown to Charles, count of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., if he would wrest it from the usurper's hands. The count accordingly met Manfred at the battle of Beneventum, 1266; and having slain him, was raised to the throne.

Recovery of the Western Isles. Alexander III. of Scotland, having defeated Haco, the piratical king of Norway, 1256, recovered from him the Western Isles, which had long been under the sway of the Scandinavians.

Fall of the Kaliphate of Bagdad. The dissolution of this remnant of the Saracenic empire took place, 1258, by an irruption of the Monguls under Houlagou, the general and brother of Menkho, who put the reigning kaliph, Ai Mutassem Billah, to a most cruel death. He ransacked the city, then one of the richest in the world, massacred no less than 1,600,000 inhabitants, and burned down the principal edifices; insomuch that Bagdad remained for a century after little but a heap of ruins.

Fall of the Saracenic Power in Morocco. A civil contest occurred in Morocco early in the thirteenth century, which ended in the triumph of the Almohade faction over the reigning house of the Almoravidas, both Saracen families. Jacob, of the race of Merini, also a Saracen, overthrew the successful party, and assumed the sovereign power 1218; but, after forty years of confusion, 1258, the aboriginal inhabitants expelled their foreign rulers and resumed their independence.

Rise of the Flagellants, fanatics who chastised themselves in public with whips and scourges, and who originated with Rainier, a hermit of Italy, 1260. Walking two and two

in procession, they whipped their bare shoulders until the blood flowed, imploring all the while God's forgiveness of the wickedness of the age. Clement VII. nearly exterminated them; but a remnant remained, and burst forth again in Saxony 1414, when Schmidt, their leader, was committed to the flames. They substituted flagellation for the sacraments, pronouncing the latter needless.

The Eastern Empire restored to the Greeks by Alexius, a person of high family amongst the Greco-Romans, 1260. Michael Paleologus, then emperor at Nice, had employed him against the despot of Epirus; and while engaged in this expedition, he was told that the Latins (Venetians) had left Constantinople unprotected, to carry on a siege against Daphnusa. Scarcely crediting the report, Alexius hurried his troops towards the capital; and approaching the walls in the dead of the night, which some of his men scaled unobserved, the sentries were put to death while asleep at their posts, and a gate of the city thrown open. The Greek army hereupon rushed in, put all they met to the sword, and to create the greater terror, fired the city in four different places. In the general confusion that ensued, Baldwin II. the Latin emperor, fled with the patriarch Justinian to the sea-side, and there embarked for Venice, leaving Alexius in full possession. When news of this surprising success reached Nice, nothing could exceed the joy of the exiled Michael, who soon after entered Constantinople in great pomp. Regarding Alexius as the restorer of his country, the emperor caused him to be clad in magnificent robes, placed with his own hands a crown upon his head, had him conducted through the streets in triumph, decreed that for a whole year his name should be joined in the public prayers with his own, and erected a statue of him on a stately pillar of marble before the church of the apostles. Michael died 1282, and was succeeded by his son Androma-

cus. The decline of Venice is dated from the period of its loss of Constantinople.

The Pragmatic Sanction. By this enactment of Louis IX., 1268, the Ghibelline party greatly triumphed over the Guelphs. Louis affirming that he held his kingdom from God

alone. France was at once declared free from papal supervision in the matter of investitures: all benefices were henceforth to be in the king's gift, and no Roman legate was to receive fees on appointments to them, as heretofore.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Louis IX., king of France (St. Louis), was so celebrated for his equity, piety, and integrity, as to be constantly chosen arbiter of the differences of other kings. Being seized with a dangerous disease, he made a vow, in the event of recovery, to march an army against the infidels; and accordingly with 50,000 men, accompanied by the queen, his brothers, and almost all the chivalry of France he arrived on the shores of the Nile, 1249. Here having defeated the force which opposed his landing, he advanced and took Damietta; but on attempting to seize Cairo, he was defeated, and the count d'Artois, his brother, slain. The king fought like a hero, but was taken prisoner with his queen, in a second engagement, and forced to give up Damietta as the price of his freedom. Having concluded a ten years' truce, four of which he passed in pilgrimage in Palestine, he returned to France on the death of the regent, his mother, 1254. It was now that his character shone forth with peculiar lustre. To be just seemed the height of his ambition. All the countries attacked by conquest to France, he restored; and when his conduct was blamed as impolitic, his reply was, 'God says, Blessed are the peace-makers.' That every individual might have free access to him, he sat at the gate of his palace to listen to petitions, and redress wrongs. To Henry III. he gave, in lieu of Normandy, the provinces of Limousin, Perigord, and Quercy. In 1270 he set in motion a second crusade, being the last of those fruitless expeditions; but had only reached Tunis, and taken Carthage from the Saracens, when the plague

broke out amongst his troops, and carried off both himself and his son, John the sad, who had been born in Damietta. Louis died in his fifty-seventh year, and was canonized by Boniface VIII.

Thomas Aquinas, the angelic doctor, of a noble Italian family, was held in the highest estimation for his piety, and canonized. He was much engaged in the polemical controversies of his day, and his most admired work is 'Summa Theologiæ.'—*Bonaventure*, the seraphic doctor, also canonized, was so much respected, that Gregory X. was made pope at his suggestion. His great work is a 'Commentary on the Master of the Sentences.'—*De Hales*, the irrefragable doctor, an English friar, known by his book on the seven cardinal virtues, Faith, Hope, Charity, Prudence, Justice, Fortitude, and Temperance.—*Matthew Paris*, an English Benedictine, whose impartial 'Historia Major' contains the annals of eight kings, from the Conqueror to Henry III. inclusive.—*Albertus Magnus*, a monk of Cologne, regarded as a magician. He constructed an androis, or machine in the human form, which could speak, and solve difficult questions; a metallic oracle which his pupil, Aquinas, in terror destroyed with a stick; and he reproduced the flowers of spring in the midst of winter, in presence of the king of the Romans. Brucker remarks that the second age of school-philosophy, in which the metaphysics of Aristotle were obscured from Arabian sources, began with Albertus.

Houlagou, the Mongul general, was rother of the fourth khan Menkho, and greatly extended the empire. He

entered Irak, and abolished the dynasty of the Assassins, 1255; seized on the kaliphate of Bagdad; subdued Syria; and at his death, 1264, left the Mongul kingdom at its greatest extent, including *all Asia*, either under actual sway, or in a tributary form, Siam and Japan excepted. From this period, however, the empire of Jenghiz Khan began to decline.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.* Latin Emperors. 1216, Peter of Courtenay; 1219, Robert of Courtenay; 1228, Baldwin II. and John of Brienne, Greek Emperors again. 1260, Michael Paleologus and John Lascaris. *Scotland.* 1214, Alexander II.; 1249,

Alexander III. *France.* 1180, Philip II. Augustus; 1223, Louis VIII.; 1226, (St.) Louis IX.; 1270, Philip III. the Hardy. *Denmark.* 1202, Waldemar, II. the Victorious; 1241, Eric VI.; 1250, Abel; 1252, Christopher; 1259, Eric VII. *Popes.* 1216, Honorius III.; 1227, Gregory IX.; 1241, Celestine IV.; 1243, Innocent IV.; 1254, Alexander IV.; 1261, Urban IV.; 1265, Clement IV.; 1271, Gregory X. *Portugal.* 1248, Alphonso III. *Germany (or West).* 1211, Frederick II.; 1250, Conrad IV.; 1250, William; 1257, Interregnum, then Alphonso of Castile.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Westminster Abbey founded, 1221, being commenced as St. Peter's church.—*Tiles* were first used in London in lieu of thatch. In this reign the way from Temple-bar to the village of Westminster was a country road, with here and there a mansion: while green fields occupied the space from the spot where St. Paul's now

stands, to Cornhill.—*Fine Linen* was first made; *Gold Coin* first struck; and *Coals* were first dug in England in this reign.—*Interest* on the loan of money was so high as fifty per cent.: hence the vast riches of the Jews, then the only traffickers in the precious metals.

SECTION V.

EDWARD I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1272 TO 1307—35 YEARS.

Personal History. Edward I. was born at Winchester, 1239, and married first Eleanor, daughter of Ferdinand III., king of Castile. Eleanor died on her journey to Scotland, at Horneby, Lincolnshire, 1296; and being conveyed to Westminster for interment, Gothic stone crosses of elegant construction were erected at each place where the corpse rested, one of which is in fine preservation at Northampton, and another is seen at Waltham cross; by her he had thirteen children, amongst whom was *Edward II.* By his second wife, Margaret, daughter of Philip III. of France, he had three more children. Edward was tall, handsome, and had fine black eyes. His strength and dexterity were prodigious; and his only personal defect consisted in a length of legs, which acquired him the *sobriquet* of Longshanks. He was the model of a politic and warlike king, possessing industry, penetration, courage, vigilance, and enterprise: frugal in unnecessary expenses, not wanting in liberality on proper occasions, severe to criminals, gracious to his courtiers, and ever affable to his dependants. Though occasionally arbitrary in conduct, he gave firmness to the laws, and did much towards raising the character of his nation in the estimation of foreigners. He was greatly attached to his first queen, Eleanor, who, when he had been shot in the arm by a poisoned arrow in the Holy Land, sucked the venom from the wound and saved his life.

Political History. Edward had reached Sicily, on his return from Syria,

when he received intelligence of his father's decease; and seeming less affected by the death of his infant son, which occurred at the same juncture, than by that of his parent, he replied to the Sicilian king's expressions of surprise "that the death of a son might be repaired, but not that of a father." Finding England to remain in tranquillity, the young monarch passed a full year in France; and taking part on one occasion in a tournament at Chalons, a positive battle ensued, wherein much blood was idly shed on both sides. Having done homage for Guienne, Edward arrived in London 1274, and applied himself to the correction of those disorders which the loose administration of his father had fostered. He summarily put down the numerous gangs of robbers, and compelled 15,000 Jews, after depriving them of their effects for adulterating the coin and usurious transactions, to quit the kingdom. In 1277, he attacked Llewellyn for his support of Leicester in the civil war; compelling him to swear fealty, and to pay a large fine. But that prince again taking up arms, Edward slew him in battle, 1283; and having hanged his brother, prince David, declared himself sovereign of Wales. The principality has ever since been part of the British dominions; and in memory of the subjugation, the heir apparent of the English throne has always assumed the title of prince of Wales. To destroy the associations of military glory and ancient valour among the Welsh, the conqueror, with a barbarous spirit scarcely intelligible in our day, put to death all the Welsh bards, the traditionary poets of the country.

After passing three years on the continent, Edward was induced to interfere in the affairs of Scotland. Alexander III., who had married Edward's sister, had died 1286, leaving his granddaughter, Margaret, called the maid of Norway, heir to his throne. Edward had no sooner settled to espouse his son to this princess, than news arrived of her death; and the succession to the Scottish throne thus devolved on the issue of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king William who had been taken prisoner by Henry II. The earl's family consisted of three daughters: Margaret, married to Allan, lord of Galloway, who left one daughter, Devergilda, married to John Baliol, by whom she had a son, also John Baliol, who now laid claim to the crown; Isabella, wife of Robert Bruce, lord of Annandale, whose son, Robert Bruce, put in his claim; and Adama, married to Henry lord Hastings, whose son, John Hastings, demanded at least a share of the kingdom. Edward being called on to decide between the competitors, first compelled each of them to do him homage, and then declared in favour of Baliol, 1292. For four years from this period the king was engaged with Philip of France in the usual quarrel about the English possessions in that country; but the two sovereigns having come to terms, Edward summoned Baliol to London to do homage for his fief. Baliol, however, disregarding the mandate, the king marched northward with a considerable army, and, after a severe contest at Dunbar, took his vassal prisoner. Baliol was confined two years in the Tower of London, and then allowed to retire to France, where he died in a private station. After two more years, which Edward passed in vexatious disputes with his barons concerning his imputed neglect of the great charter, and with the clergy regarding their taxation, William Wallace, a gentleman of small fortune in Scotland, incited his countrymen to shake off the English yoke. A devoted army was soon at his command; but Edward hastened from Flanders, defeated him at Falkirk, the young Bruce even fighting in the English ranks. A similar revolt took place 1304, when Edward again entered Scotland, abrogated its laws and customs, and in the same policy which had influenced him to exterminate the Welsh bards, destroyed all records, histories, and monuments of antiquity, that no traces of the people's original freedom might be found; even carrying

off to London the Scottish coronation-chair. The heroic Wallace being delivered into his hands, was most unjustifiably hanged in London.

This last act, however, produced all the evils which Edward had so long toiled to prevent; for young Robert Bruce, grandson of the former Robert, exasperated by the fate of one so justly dear to his country, secretly determined on revenge. He was in London when privately informed that John Cummin, Edward's viceroy in the north, had poisoned the king's mind against him: whereupon losing no time, he unexpectedly presented himself at an assembly of the Scottish nobles at Dumfries, and rushing upon the treacherous Cummin, killed him with his own hand. He now openly offered himself as the defender of the national rights, and was without hesitation saluted king of Scotland, crowned at Scone, and placed at the head of a powerful army. Edward's general, Aymer de Valence, obtained some advantage over him soon after this revolt; and the king himself was on his way to the north, breathing vengeance, when a dysentery seized him at Carlisle, and carried him off at Burgh-on-the-sands, in Cumberland, enjoining with his dying breath that his remains should be carried before the army, and by no means interred until Scotland had been conquered. His body, however, was conveyed to Westminster Abbey; and when his tomb was opened in 1774, it was found yet entire. Edward was sixty-eight when he died.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Settlement of the Lombard Merchants in London. When Edward had expatriated the Jews, certain merchants from Lombardy became money-lenders; and these settling in a particular spot of London, transmitted their name to the street built thereon, where many of the London bankers still carry on business.

Chamberlaine's Riot. Thomas Chamberlaine, a gentleman of note, assembled several of his associates at Boston, Lincolnshire, 1288, under pretence of holding a tournament; but in fact with a view of plundering the rich fair of Boston. To facilitate his purpose, he privately set fire to the town: and while the inhabitants were employed in quenching the flames, the conspirators broke into the booths, and carried off the goods. Chamberlaine was detected and hanged, but would not give up the names of his accomplices.

Prevalence of Piracy. Sea-robbery reached such a height during this reign, that a complete naval war was carried on for two years by French and English, Dutch and Genoese, without the interference of their respective governments. At last, however, Philip of France threatened to attack Edward if he did not bring to justice the authors

of a conflict, wherein the French lost no less than 15,000 men! Such was the want of bond between king and people under the feudal system.

The Conquest of Wales, 1283.

Edward made material changes in the Cambrian laws, so as to reduce them nearer to the English standard, especially in the forms of judicial proceedings: but the Welsh still retained much of their original polity, particularly the law of inheritance, whereby lands were divided equally among all the issue male, in lieu of descending to the eldest son alone. By other subsequent statutes, the provincial immunities of the Welsh were still further abridged: but the finishing stroke to their dependency was given by Henry VIII., whose enactments, while they advanced the civil prosperity of Wales, put the people under nearly the same rule with England. Henry divided the country into twelve shires, and in short, reduced it to the same order in which it stands at this day; differing from the kingdom of England in only a few particulars, and those too of the nature of privileges (such as having courts within itself, independent of the process of Westminster-hall), and some other immaterial pe-

cularities, hardly more than are to be found in many English counties. Thus were these brave people gradually forced into the enjoyment of true liberty; being insensibly put upon the same footing, and made fellow-citizens, with their conquerors. As to the character of the Welsh, they are a brave, hospitable people: and though jealous of affronts and irascible, are easily reconciled. The common people are said to look with a suspicious eye on strangers, and to bear an hereditary grudge to the English nation, by whom

their ancestors were driven from the finest parts of the island. The gentlemen are apt to value themselves upon the antiquity of their families; and perhaps with some reason, as they can usually trace them much higher than the inhabitants of other countries. The twelve Welsh counties are—*sir north-ern*, Flintshire, Caernarvonshire, Merionethshire, Anglesea, Denbighshire, Montgomeryshire: *sir southern*, Cardiganshire, Brecknockshire, Caermarthenshire, Pembrokeshire, Radnorshire, Glamorganshire.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Rise of the House of Austria. This family, which, by a series of fortunate marriages since the fifteenth century, has arisen to such power, sprung originally from the humble counts of Hapsburg, who possessed a small territory in the canton of Berne in Switzerland. Here, on a lofty eminence crowned with beech, stands an ancient town, the first and only seat of the Austrian family; and Otho, its count in the twelfth century, could but trace his pedigree to his grandfather, who was brother of Werner, bishop of Strasburg. The numerous princes of Germany, preferring a nominal sovereign, whose humble origin and small possessions could impose no restraint upon their ambition, raised Rodolph of Hapsburg to the western throne, 1273. Rodolph, soon after his accession, not only became lord of nearly all Switzerland, but the joint inheritance of the powerful house of Zastingen and of the counts of Kybourg devolving to him by death, such valuable acquisitions became the basis of his power, and that of his successors.

Fall of China to the Tartars. Hupilay, one of the imperial Mongul family, subdued China, and ascended its throne, 1279. The Chinese sovereign, Te-ping, was only eight years of age when the Tartar entered his country; and he was taken on board the fleet for protection. The fleet, however, being put in confusion, an officer leaped with him in his arms into the

sea, and both were drowned; whereon most of the mandarins, the empress, all the ladies and maids of honour, the chief minister, and multitudes of others, followed their example, and met the same fate; inasmuch that, together with those who fell in battle, 100,000 Chinese perished on that day. Thus ended the Chinese dynasty of Song; and the Mongul dynasty of Yuen-Chitsou, or Cublai, commenced, and held sway till 1368. Hupilay became greatly beloved by his new subjects, whose turn for science he encouraged, causing mathematicians to find the source of the river Whang-ho, before unknown to the people. He made Peking the capital; and while resident there, constructed a canal 300 leagues in length, still one of the wonders of the empire. By it above 10,000 imperial barks transport with ease and at small cost the tribute of grain and silk annually paid to the court. In the third year of his reign, Hupilay formed a design of reducing the isles of Japan, together with the peninsular of Siam; but both enterprises ended unfortunately, and that against Japan remarkably so; for, of 100,000 persons employed in it, only four or five escaped with the melancholy news of the destruction of the rest by shipwreck.

First Historical Notice of Japan. This empire in the sea was first discovered by the Portuguese, 1543; but as it was evidently a powerful

nation in the time of Hupilay, and has mixed not with with any of the transactions of other states at any period of history, we shall now mention it once for all. The origin of the Japanese is unknown. Their religion and philosophy are borrowed from the Chinese; but their persons, especially the females, have the character of Europeans. The latter at Jeddo are generally handsome. The government is divided between two emperors: a spiritual one, the Dayrie, by far the more powerful of the two, living in a sort of splendid state-imprisonment at Miako; and a secular one, the Koeboe, residing in the same manner at Jeddo. The Chinese and Dutch alone are admitted to commerce by this strange people, who live in a climate and on a soil blessed with all the bounties of nature. Their country, consisting principally of three islands, is cultivated like a garden to the summit of its hills; and so productive is the ground, that the English radish attains the enormous weight of sixty pounds, and the blossom of the plum the size of an English cabbage-rose. In horticulture the Japanese have made great advances: they are capable of producing the vast trees of the forest in a miniature form: so that the elm, the oak, and the pine, figure respectively as Liliputian plants in painted vases and flower-pots, preserving their peculiarity of shape and form of branches. The population in 1833 was thirty-four millions. There are eight classes or castes; and one division of the lowest, the tanners, is held in utter abhorrence, like the Parias of India; because they eat of those animals whose skins they take; whereas the higher castes confine themselves to the dainties of fish, fowls, and fruits. The people are celebrated for their Japan-ware, as we term it, which we import through China; and the fitting up of their houses and palaces is both rich and tasteful. Telescopes, thermometers, and clocks, are made at Nagasaki; plays are acted in well-constructed

theatres, having three tiers of boxes, and even *printed* bills of the performance; while the ladies who frequent them change their dresses twice or thrice during the representation, in order to display the riches of their wardrobe; a number of servants attending them to carry the necessary articles of apparel. Excursions at night on their beautiful lakes are the frequent recreation of the upper classes: the barks in which they sail are fantastically lit with painted paper lanterns: the guitar is as common as our piano: and, in a word, notwithstanding much eccentricity, and a pagan form of religion, the Japanese are a highly civilized race. They have many poets, and writers of romance; and their great volcanic mountain, Fozie, is generally introduced in the latter, as one of the wonders of nature. Among their customs, is the distinction made between an offender in the higher grades, and one in the lower, as regards punishment. A man of the better class, if death be his portion, is permitted to destroy himself in any way he may deem most agreeable; while the poor man pays the debt by the hand of the executioner. (Have they adopted this peculiarity from the Greeks and Romans? See the deaths of Socrates, Seneca, &c.) 'Cunning, polite, suspicious, reserved, sensual, impatient, haughty, superstitious, revengeful, cruel in cold blood, on the one side,' says M. Meijlan, who was allowed, in a recent embassy, to visit Jeddo; 'while on the other they are just, honest, patriotic, exemplary in the relations of parent and child, steady friends, and *probably* not deficient in manly courage.'

The Sicilian Vespers. Charles, count of Anjou, had so tyrannised over the Sicilians, that a plot was formed, under the auspices of the eastern emperor, Michael Paleologus, headed by John di Procida, a Salernitan nobleman, to assassinate not only the count, but all the other French on the island. Accordingly on Easter Monday, 1282, the chief conspirators

assembled at Palermo; and after dinner, both Palermitans and French went in grand procession to the service of vespers in the church of Monreale. On their way, a Frenchman insulted a young Sicilian bride, just returning from the church; whereupon a Palermitan stabbed him, and the contemplated massacre ensued. Not less than 8000 Frenchmen fell on this dreadful night; and the island put itself without delay under the protection of Peter, king of Arragon.

The Starvation of Ugolino. This ambitious personage obtained the sovereignty of Pisa, 1288, by means of one Ruggieri, a noble, who afterwards dethroned him, and shutting him up in a tower with his two sons, left them there to starve; a catastrophe which has been touchingly told by the poet Dante in his 'Inferno.'

Foundation of the Ottoman Empire. The Turks first got a foot-

ing in Europe, under Othman I., who, after taking Nice from the Latins of Constantinople, drove the Seljucks, the ancient sovereigns of Gazna, from Bithynia, on the shores of the Euxine, 1298, and declared himself sultan of the Moslems in his capital of Prusa. Othman died 1324, and was succeeded by his son Orchan, called the Padishah, celebrated for establishing a fine force of infantry. As this last-named prince restored the ancient eastern practice of transacting state affairs in public at the gate of his palace, a custom frequently alluded to in holy-writ, the Turkish court obtained from the Franks in aftertimes the appellation of the *Porte*, by which it is still known in diplomacy. Affecting also to be descended from the monarchs of Persia, the posterity of Othman solaced themselves with the title which we translate *grand seignior*, the *great king* of the Persians of old.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Alighieri Dante, the Florentine poet, ambitious of being elevated among the ruling men of his native city, became involved in all the miseries of faction. In his exile at Ravenna, where he died, 1321, he vented his resentment against Boniface VIII. and Philip IV. of France, who had been instrumental to his downfall. His 'Commedia,' or hell, purgatory, and paradise, is a fantastic drama, comprehending a singular admixture of characters real and allegorical. The usurped power of Boniface VIII., the pedigree of the French king, and the prostituted venality of Florence, are the points against which the satire of Dante is especially directed; and throughout the work he displays an energy and elegance which have given him amongst the lovers of Italian literature an undying name.

Roger Bacon, an English Franciscan monk, spent the greater part of his life at Oxford, where he had been educated. His 'Opus Magus' contains his chief productions. He was skilled in all the then known branches of physical sciences; and in mechanics,

probably no greater genius had arisen since the time of Archimedes. He largely contributed to the improvement of optics, was almost the inventor of the telescope, and wrote of the camera-obscura. In astronomy, he demonstrated the errors then existing in the calendar; in chemistry, he pointed out how to make gunpowder, and alluded to phosphorus; in medicine, he was an adept; and in ethics, he laid down excellent precepts for the conduct of life.

Boniface VIII., one of the most turbulent of popes, compelled Celestine to resign to him the tiara, 1294, by terrifying him at midnight, and threatening him with eternal condemnation. He hurled the thunder of the Vatican against the kings of Denmark and France, and annulled the election of Albert to be king of the Romans. The family of the Colonnas were particularly marked as objects of his vengeance; but his insolence did not long triumph, though he had declared that God had made him lord over kings and kingdoms.

Philip of France ordered him to be seized by his general Nogaret at Anagni, that he might bring him to the council of Lyons; but Boniface escaped to Rome, where, overpowered by the indignities offered to his person, he died in a few weeks.

Alphonso X., king of Leon and Castile, was dethroned by his own son, and died 1284, of a broken heart. He obtained great fame as an astronomer, correcting many of the errors of the Ptolemaic system, and publishing at Toledo his celebrated *Alphonsine Tables*.

Marco Polo travelled from Venice to the court of Hupilay the Mongul, who sent him and his brother ambassadors to the pope. His son wrote an account of his father's travels; and therein is found the earliest correct account of China, Japan, and Madagascar.

Philip IV., called *le bel*, ruled France from 1285 to 1314; and by his marriage with the heiress of Navarre, joined that kingdom to his dominions. He had some quarrels with our Edward, and in most of them, especially on the following occasion, seems to have been the aggressor. Edward having asked in marriage for his son, Philippa, daughter of the earl of Flanders, Philip invited her to pass through France on her way to England; and on her arrival

in Paris imprisoned her. It was this king who obtained the abolition of the Knights Templars, and whom Dante so severely satirized.

Cimabue, the restorer of painting in Italy. The Greek artists being invited to Florence to restore the arts of design, he studied under them; and, though he painted only in distemper, and had no idea of the management of light and shade, or of perspective, he is spoken of by Dante as having attained the greatest eminence in historical and portrait painting. Some of his works still exist in the church of Santa Croce. *GiOTTO*, his pupil, was found by him drawing figures in the sand, while tending his sheep. He improved greatly upon his master, and adorned many of the cities of Italy with his works, many of which are still to be seen. He excelled in mosaic; and his ship of St. Peter in the cathedral at Rome has received extraordinary encomiums.

Raymond Lully, the philosopher, born in Majorca, quitted the army to become a friar of St. Francis, in which capacity he travelled through the east to convert the Mahometans. His 'Great Art' contains the plan of a machine for working scientific propositions mechanically, in the manner of Mr. Babbage's modern calculating-machine.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Coals discovered near Newcastle, 1300. They were first consumed by dyers and brewers, 1305; but in consequence of an application from the gentry, the king prohibited their use, declaring their smoke a public nuisance. Utility, however, has triumphed over prejudice, and the quantity of coals consumed in London alone, by a recent calculation, amounts annually to two million tons. From the vast increase in the demand for this valuable fuel during late years, owing to the improvement of the steam-engine, it began to be doubted whether the stock in the

English beds would last many more years: Dr. Lardner, however, assures us it has been satisfactorily shown that, estimating the present calls upon our coal-mines at sixteen million tons annually, the coal-fields of Durham and Northumberland alone are sufficient to supply them for 1700 years; and after that time, the great coal-basin of South Wales will be sufficient to keep up the same produce for 2000 years longer. 'Long before a minute fraction of such a period of time shall have rolled over (continues the doctor) we may safely pronounce that other and more powerful mechanical

agents will altogether supersede the use of coal.' Respecting the origin of this mineral, it would seem to be, on microscopic examination, fossil wood, the remains of trees overwhelmed at the Deluge, aided by the subsequent annual contributions of the vast American and other forests, swept into the ocean by the overflowing of countless rivers, and absorbed gradually by the earth. The coal-ships trading to London from Newcastle, have long been the nursery of our seamen; and the British Navy owes much of its superiority to the necessity which has existed for centuries of supplying these vessels with vigorous mariners.

The Mariner's Compass perfected by Giovia, an ingenious Neapolitan, 1302, though it was most probably invented by the Chinese; as even in 319, a thousand years before this period, we find that people constructing magnetic chariots, with a figure on them which always pointed to the south. When the emperor went in state, one of these cars headed the procession, and served to indicate the cardinal points.

The Statute of Mortmain passed in the English parliament 1279, to prevent the too great accumulation of land amongst religious or corporate bodies, by whose mismanagement it became comparatively unproductive. Mortmain, or the dead hand, implied also that property thus placed in the power of public institutions was in hands that could not alienate it, or pass it to others, for the common good.

Manorial Rights established 1290. The Saxon thanes had kept as much of their lands in their own hands as they needed to supply their household with food, calling such *demesne land*, from *domus* (house), because around their dwellings: what they could not so use, and which remained, was called *manor*, from *maneo* (remain), and was either let for money and special services, or left as *common land*. Edward, finding the manorial lands underlet in a way that made it difficult to ascertain the

real lord or proprietor, enacted that tenants should hold, as at this day, of the lord alone. Lords of manors, who may now be commoners, are still empowered to hold a domestic court, called court-baron, for redressing misdemeanors within the manor; and should their *common* lands be enclosed, they are entitled to all the advantages derivable from them as let lands. *Copyholds* are those tenures for which the tenant has nothing to show but the copy of the roll made by the steward in the manor-court, on being admitted to his tenement, which must be part of the manor; and it is by this species of tenure that most of the landed property in England is holden. As the services originally required of copyholders are now no longer called for, the tenure is nearly as valuable as freehold. *Freehold*, or tenure in fee-simple, gives the proprietor unconditional possession of his property for ever, so that he may appoint his own heirs.

Building of the Alhambra. This existing palace of the Moorish kings of Granada was commenced in 1300 by Mahomet II. It derived its name from the inhabitants of Alhambra, in Castile, who, when their town was taken by the Spaniards, fled to Granada, and settled on a hill by the side of that city. It is a castellated fortress, of which the palace occupies but a small portion: its walls are studded with towers, and stretch irregularly round the whole crest of a lofty hill that overlooks the city. Mr. Irving thus describes his recent visit to the place: 'We found ourselves in a deep ravine; various foot-paths winding through it, bordered with stone seats, and ornamented with fountains. To our left we beheld the towers of the Alhambra beelling above us; to our right the Vermilion Towers, so called from their ruddy hue. Ascending the steep and shady avenue, we arrived at the foot of a square Moorish tower, through which passed the main entrance to the fortress. The portal at this point is called the gate of justice, from the tribunal held within its porch during the Moslem domination. The

great porch of the gate is formed by an immense Arabian arch, of the horse-shoe form, which springs to half the height of the tower. On the keystone of this arch is engraven a gigantic hand. Within the vestibule, on the keystone of the portal, is sculptured in like manner a gigantic key. According to Mateo (Mr. Irving's guide) it was a tradition handed down from the oldest inhabitants, that the hand and key were magical devices on which the fate of the Alhambra depended. The Moorish king who built it was a great magician, and had laid the whole fortress under a spell. This spell would last until the hand on the outer arch should reach down and grasp the key; when the whole pile would tumble to pieces, and all the treasures buried beneath it by the Moors would be revealed. After passing the barbican, we ascended a lane, winding between walls, and came upon an open esplanade within the fortress, called the Place of the Cisterns, from great reservoirs cut in the living rock for the supply of the fortress. Here, also, is a well of immense depth, furnishing the clearest and coldest of water; another monument of the delicate taste of the Moors, who were indefatigable in their exertions to obtain that element in its crystal purity. We now ventured through a simple unostentatious portal, opening into the interior of the Moorish palace: it seemed as if we were at once transported into other times and another realm, and were treading the scenes of Arabian story. We found ourselves in a great court, paved with white marble, and decorated at each end with light Moorish peristyles: it is called the court of Alberca. In the centre was an immense basin or fish-pond, stocked with gold-fish, and bordered by hedges of roses. At the upper end of this court rose the great tower of Comares. From the lower end we passed through a Moorish archway into the renowned Court of Lions. There is no part of the edifice that gives us a more complete idea of its original beauty and magnificence than this; for none has

suffered so little from the ravages of time. In the centre stands the fountain famous in song and story. The alabaster basins still shed their diamond drops; and the twelve lions, which support them, cast forth their crystal streams as in the days of Boabdil. The court is laid out in flower-beds, and surrounded by light Arabian arcades of open filligree-work, supported by slender pillars of white marble. The architecture, like that of all the other parts of the palace, is characterized by elegance rather than grandeur; bespeaking a delicate and graceful taste, and a disposition to indolent enjoyment. Above the inner porch is a balcony communicating with the women's apartments; and the latticed jealousies still remain, whence the beauties of the harem could gaze unseen upon the entertainments of the hall below. On the opposite side of the Court of Lions, is the Hall of the Abencerrages; so called from the gallant cavaliers of that illustrious line, here perfidiously massacred. Our humble attendant Mateo pointed out the very wicket of the portal through which they are said to have been introduced one by one, and the white marble fountain in the centre of the hall, where they were beheaded. He showed us also certain broad ruddy stains in the pavement, traces of their blood, which, according to popular belief, can never be effaced. I might go on to describe minutely the other delightful apartments of the palace; the Tocador, or toilet of the queen, an open belvedere on the summit of a tower, where the Moorish sultanas enjoyed the pure breezes from the mountain, and the prospect of the surrounding paradise; the secluded little patio, or garden of Lindaraxa, with its alabaster fountain, its thickets of roses and myrtles, of citrons and oranges; the cool halls and grottoes of the baths, where the glare and heat of day are tempered into a soft mysterious light and a pervading freshness. While the city below pants with the noontide heat, and the parched Vega trembles to the eye, the delicate airs from the Sierra

Nevada play through these lofty halls, bringing with them the sweetness of the surrounding gardens. Every thing invites to that indolent repose, the bliss of southern climes; and while the half-shut eye looks out from shaded balconies upon the glittering landscape, the ear is lulled by the rustling of groves, and the murmur of running streams.'

The Term Spinster is applied in law-deeds, in this reign, to unmarried females; and is supposed to have originated from the circumstance of the spinning of wearing apparel being the usual occupation of such, in houses of rank. The practice obtained in the families of gentry in England even in the last century; when it was not uncommon for a young woman to spin and weave for herself a set of body and house linen, preparatory to her marriage.—*Spectacles* were invented in Florence by Spina.—*Looking-glasses* were only made at Venice, as well as glasses which, if mineral poisons were poured into them, or mingled with wine or other liquor in them, would fly into pieces.—*Wine* was sold by apothecaries as a medicine.—*Knives, spoons, cups, and tallow-candles* were considered luxuries in England.—*Woollen cloths*, made in England, were appointed to be sold in Antwerp by the English

company of merchant adventurers. Wool was then our staple commodity; and, in commemoration of the fact, the lord chancellor still sits on a wool-sack, when acting as speaker of the house of lords.—*The Jubilee* instituted as a centenary festival by pope Boniface, and all attending it received plenary absolution of their sins.

SOVEREIGNS. *East. Empire.* 1261, Michael Paleologus and John Lascaris; 1282, Andronicus II. Paleologus. *Popes.* 1271, Gregory X.; 1276, Innocent V., Adrian V., and John XXI.; 1277, Nicholas III.; 1281, Martin IV.; 1285, Honorius IV.; 1288, Nicholas IV.; 1294, Celestine V.; 1294, Boniface VIII.; 1303, Benedict XI.; 1305, Clement V. *Scotland.* 1249, Alexander III.; 1286, Interregnum; 1292, John Baliol; 1297, Edward I.; 1298, Wallace, chief; 1304, John Baliol and Edward I. restored. *France.* 1270, Philip III. (the Hardy); 1285, Philip IV. (the Fine). *Denmark.* 1259, Eric VII.; 1286, Eric VIII. *Portugal.* 1247, Alphonso III.; 1279, Dennis. *Germany (or West).* 1257, Alphonso of Castile; 1273, Rodolph I. of Hapsburg; 1292, Adolphus of Nassau; 1298, Albert I. of Austria.

SECTION VI.

EDWARD II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1307 TO 1327—20 YEARS.

Personal History. Edward II. was born at Caernavon 1284, and was the first titular prince of Wales. He married Isabel daughter of Philip IV. and had, amongst other issue, *Edward III.*; and *Joan*, wife of David, son of Robert Bruce, king of Scotland. If Edward's father had reason to rejoice at the affection of his queen, he had himself cause to lament the cruelty of his own. This king resembled his father in face and personal accomplishments, but was wholly unlike him in character. His main foible was a passion for favourites, to whose judgment he constantly deferred; and he possessed not the requisite vigour of mind to keep the barons in even moderate subjection. We must be careful how we stigmatize such of our early kings as were unfortunate in their rule; since neither the good nor the great were in those days secure against the plots of faction. The turbulence of the great, and 'the madness of the people,' are evils, equally with the tyranny of princes, incident

to society, and with the same care to be guarded against. Edward's father tyrannically made many violent attempts upon the liberty of the people; but he acted fearlessly, and his barons submitted. Young Edward, on the contrary, was all facility and good-temper; and his weakness, not his violence, wrought his ruin. The laws were subverted; an attempt to restore them was an imputed crime; and nothing but the king's murder could satisfy his assailants. A constitution, therefore, depending as that of England so entirely did on the personal character of the ruler, was necessarily a government of will rather than of law.

Political History. Edward ascended the throne at the age of twenty-three; and his engaging person and fair character induced the nation to hope for a glorious reign. But his first act proved him unqualified to succeed so politic a prince as his father. He marched to Scotland to secure the conquest of that kingdom, in conformity with his parent's dying injunction; yet, without any cogent reason, suddenly disbanded his army, and returned to London. His elevation of Piers Gaveston, son of a Gascon knight, to the earldom of Cornwall, together with the insolence of the favourite, gave umbrage to the barons, who, headed by Thomas earl of Lancaster, the king's cousin, forced Edward to expatriate him; and when the royal attachment was notwithstanding evinced, by his appointment to the lieutenancy of Ireland, they seized him, and cut off his head in Warwick castle. With 30,000 men, Edward again proceeded to Scotland; but was defeated at Bannockburn 1314, with immense loss, Robert Bruce being thereupon raised to the Scottish throne.

The king, after narrowly escaping captivity, returned home; and was soon engaged in a fresh dispute with the barons, for his selection of a new favourite, Hugh Le Despenser, whom he loaded with honours and wealth. Lancaster again raised a force against his cousin, who took him prisoner at Burton-on-Trent, and beheaded him on an eminence near his own castle of Pomfret. A more powerful league, however, was now formed against the unhappy Edward. Charles IV. cited him to do homage for Guienne, to obtain a pretext for dispossessing him of that province; and when queen Isabella visited Paris to settle the dispute between her husband and brother, Mortimer earl of March, one of the adherents of Lancaster, who had escaped from imprisonment in England, prevailed on her to sanction a conspiracy, which had been formed for the destruction of Spenser. So warmly did she enter into Mortimer's design, that she even forced the prince of Wales, then only fourteen, to become a party in the plot, and soon after landed in Suffolk with 3000 men in arms. Several of the royal house, three prelates, and other persons of influence, flocked to her standard; and the king, who had escaped to Ireland, was captured, and carried to Kenilworth castle. The Spensers, father and son, were executed; and charges being drawn up against the king, he was removed to Berkeley castle, and there barbarously murdered by passing a heated iron into his bowels, 1327. The horrid deed was revealed to the castle-guards by the screams of the agonized monarch, who thus cruelly died in his forty-fourth year. He was buried in Gloucester cathedral; and his tomb, not far distant from the high altar, is still to be seen, having on it the recumbent figure of the unfortunate king, in alabaster, supposed, from the elegance of the sculpture, to be of Italian workmanship, with a more modern and very beautiful canopy of tabernacle-work.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Battle of Bannockburn, 1314. As Flanders, Edward appeared on the assembling the whole military force of frontiers of Scotland 1314, with England, together with troops from 100,000 men. Robert Bruce, on the

other hand, could muster but 30,000 at the utmost: but these, being men distinguished by acts of valour, rendered desperate by their situation, and inured to all the varieties of fortune, might justly, under such a leader, be deemed formidable. Bruce posted himself at Bannockburn, near Stirling, where he had a hill on his right flank, and a morass on his left: and not content with having taken these precautions to prevent being surrounded, he knew the superior strength of the enemy in cavalry, and made provision against it. Having a rivulet in front, he commanded deep pits to be dug along its banks, and sharp stakes to be planted in them, and the whole to be carefully covered with turf. The English arrived in sight in the evening, and a conflict ensued between two bodies of cavalry; when Bruce, being engaged in single combat with Henry de Bohun, of the family of Hereford, at one stroke cleft him to the chin with a battle-axe, in sight of the two armies. The Scots, encouraged by this favourable event, prognosticated a happy issue to the combat on the ensuing day; while the English, confident in their numbers, and elated with former successes, longed for an opportunity of revenge. Early on the ensuing morning (June 25) Edward advanced towards the Scots. The earl of Gloucester, his nephew, who commanded the left wing of the cavalry, impelled by the ardour of youth, rushed to the attack without precaution, and fell among the covered pits. As this body of horse was consequently disordered, Sir James Douglas, who commanded the Scottish cavalry, pushed it off the field with considerable loss. While the English were alarmed at so unfortunate a commencement, they ob-

served an army on the heights, which seemed marching leisurely to surround them. It was in fact a number of waggoners and sumpter-boys, whom Robert had collected; and having supplied them with military standards, he thus gave them the appearance, at a distance, of a formidable body. The stratagem took effect: the English threw down their arms and fled, and were pursued with great slaughter for the space of ninety miles, till they reached Berwick. The Scots, besides an immense booty, took many persons of quality prisoners, whom Robert treated with great humanity, and whose ransom was a new accession of wealth to the victorious army. Edward narrowly escaped, by taking shelter in Dunbar, and thence passed by sea to Berwick. Such was the great and decisive battle of Bannockburn, which secured the independence of Scotland.

The Leprosy prevailed in England and throughout Europe; and amongst the wild fancies of the age, it was imagined that persons so affected had plotted with the Saracens and Jews to poison the wells and fountains. Men being glad of any pretence to get rid of those who were a burden to them, many leprous people were burned alive; while the Jews had their goods confiscated on the same account.

A great Famine 1316; when the parliament limited the price of provisions as follows: An ox, sixteen shillings; a cow, twelve; a hog two years old, three and fourpence; a sheep unshorn, one and eightpence; if shorn, one and twopence; a goose, twopence-halfpenny; a capon, twopence; a hen, one penny; twenty-four eggs, one penny. A quarter of wheat, beans, or peas, twenty shillings.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Independence of Switzerland. Helvetia had for centuries continued tributary to the Germans and Burgundians; but the emperor Albert treated the inhabitants with such rigour, that

they petitioned against the cruelty of his governors. Far from sympathizing with the groaning people, Albert deputed Herman Gesler, his viceroy, to stop their clamours by any means in

his power; and that functionary failed not to increase their burdens. The country being thus ripe for a civil explosion, it required only some daring hand to fire the train. When Gesler, therefore, with a degree of insolence as impolitic as ridiculous, placed his plumed cap upon a spear in the centre of the market-place of Altorf, and ordered that every one passing should, on pain of death, pay it the tokens of submission which he exacted in his own person, Tell, a sturdy mountaineer, refused compliance. Being brought before the governor, the recusant, according to the current story, was commanded to shoot an apple from the head of his own son, as the price of his escape from condign punishment. Tell, drawing two arrows from his quiver, placed one in his bosom, and with the other succeeded in hitting the proposed mark, without injury to the boy; but having the boldness to avow his purpose of using the weapon he had reserved against the governor, had he hurt his boy, the latter sentenced him to perpetual imprisonment, and carried him off in his own barge across the lake of Lucerne. A storm arising during the passage, Tell, whose skill as a navigator was not inferior to his other qualifications, was released from his chains, and placed at the helm. Steering the vessel under a rock, still shown as the site of the exploit, one desperate leap from the deck placed him out of the reach of his captors. The death of Gesler, whom Tell soon after shot while riding near Kusnacht, formed the signal of a general rising, which terminated in the establishment of Swiss independence on the 1st of January, 1308. Tell, who continued a private citizen, survived the liberation of his country forty-six years. The canton of Schwitz (whence the name Switzerland) had, before the affair of Tell, united with those of Zurich, Lucerne, Uri, and Unterwald, on the principles of mutual defence, against their Austrian masters, under the title of the Helvetic confederacy. The secession, however, was not complete un-

til 1513, when Appenzel, the last of the nineteen cantons, quitted its ancient protectors. The armies of Germany and France in vain attempted to destroy the league: again and again they were repulsed, the mountains of the Swiss giving them every advantage over their assailants: and at length, by the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, the Helvetic confederacy was acknowledged by the other European states.

Capture of Rhodes. Villaret, grand master of the knights Hôpitaliers, whose order had been founded at Jerusalem for valour in the crusades, being annoyed by the Saracen population of Cyprus, where he resided, resolved on removing to Rhodes, which had also many Saracen inhabitants. Andronicus, the eastern emperor, to whom Rhodes now belonged, refused to sanction Villaret's proceeding, and urged the Saracens to eject him. He, however, got possession of the capital after a severe struggle, 1310; and in four more years subjugated the whole island, when he exterminated the Saracens to a man, and changed the title of his order to that of the knights of Rhodes.—For two centuries from this period these knights were a terror to the Saracens and Turks in their neighbourhood.

Suppression of the Knights Templars. The knights of this order had acquired vast riches and military renown: but Philip IV. of France charged them with such enormities, that Clement V. reluctantly suppressed their order, 1308. Many of them, after trials for capital crimes, were put to death; while a great portion of their revenues was bestowed upon the knights Hôpitaliers.

The Guelph and Ghibelline contest at its height. The German power in Italy had been declining from a period prior to the reign of Rodolph of Hapsburg: no year had passed without a conflict between the two factions, whereby cities, districts, and even private families, were involved in troubles, divisions, and civil butchery. The Florentines, Pisans, Genoese, and

Luccans, caring neither for pope nor emperor, had taken advantage of the struggle, and declared themselves independent; and the influence of Germany was in a manner annihilated, when Henry VII. became emperor, 1308. Resolved on recovering the revolted states, Henry obtained from the diet of Frankfort sufficient supplies for what was called a Roman expedition; and arriving at Milan with all the princes of the empire, 1311, was crowned king of Lombardy. This ceremony was performed with a new iron crown, the Guelphs having concealed the old one of the Lombard sovereigns, to which great virtues were attributed. The Guelph and Ghibelline contest was not now, as heretofore, a struggle between the priesthood and the empire, but a civil strife between one state and another. The Florentines and Genoese were warring upon Pisa; Rome was tyrannised over by the Colonnas and Ursini; the Venetians were expelling the house of Este from Ferrara; and down to Sicily all was rivalry, conflict, and rout. We cannot but look favourably upon the talents of Henry, when we find this scene of confusion gradually dissipate as he proceeded from one part of Italy to another. Cremona he reduced by force; Parma, Vicenza, and Placentia, made peace with him; Padua paid him 100,000 crowns; and the Venetians presented him with a like sum, and a diamond crown. At Genoa he was joyously received; but Clement V., although he had in the first instance invited Henry into Italy, now leagued with the Ursini faction to oppose his entrance into Rome. By the aid of the Colonnas, however, he got admission into the city; and from the capital issued an edict to the effect that all the states of Italy should pay him an annual tribute. In this order he comprehended the kingdom of Naples; to which he was going to make good his claim of superiority by arms, when he died at Benevento, 1314. From this time the terms Guelph and Ghibelline were never

heard but in a sense opposed to their original signification. Whenever henceforth any Italian state was disturbed by a faction, the rebels were called Ghibellines, because, like the emperors of former days, they sought to disturb the peace; while the rebels in return bestowed the title of Guelphs upon the party whose power they endeavoured to subvert.

Rise of the Heretics. These were a party of Mystics who settled at mount Athos, in Thessaly, 1340, and who had reached that tranquillity of mind required by their tenets. Mysticism existed amongst the eclectic sect of Plato's disciples, and has been noticed, in all ages, in certain sects professing Christianity. St. Bernard, St. Thomas Aquinas, St. Thomas à Kempis, Albert the great, St. Theresa, and Molinos, the founder of the Quietists, were mystics. In the church of England, the excellent Jeremy Taylor, Dr. Henry More, John Norris of Bemerton, and some of the professors of Hutchinsonianism, were devoted to mystical theology. Mysticism (not to confound it with those vital articles of our Faith, the influence of the Holy Spirit, and the Communion of Saints) is the belief in an union of the soul with God, so intimate, that she is enabled to behold him, though in the body, not intuitively, as he is seen by the blessed in heaven, but in a light essentially divine; and to have free communion with Him. At an early period of Christianity, three stages in the soul's progress to perfection are named; the purgative, the illuminative, and the contemplative or unitive. For each of these she disposes herself by prayer, penance, and submission to the divine will; and each has its vicissitudes of spiritual joy and trial. To obtain a contrite and humble heart, the foundation of all virtue, requires many an arduous effort, many a painful sacrifice. As the soul advances in virtue, her combats continue; temptations to vanity, to gratifications of sense, to dissipation of thought, press on her and appear to multiply; but at length

the three stages *are passed*, and the utmost point of earthly happiness is attained. What has been termed *the spiritual night*, during the third stage, was considered by far the severest trial endured by the soul in its progress to perfection.—It has been questioned how far mystical theology may have tended to the glory of God, and the good of mankind; on which point it may be said, that no man can withdraw himself from the active and useful occupations of life, without a cogent reason for his retirement, a reason which must be looked for in the fact of his better ability, when thus secluded, to do the will of his Maker, and so to promote the welfare of his fellow-men. This is all that monachism can build upon in the way of merit. Now unless mystical devotion can consist with the regular discharge of the active duties of society, with which we have daily

proof that vital religion may consist, it can surely only be safely cultivated by such as are devoted to the cloister, or are otherwise unable to conform to the usual requirements of social life.

Removal of the Papacy to Avignon.

It was pope Clement V. who, preferring his native France to Italy, removed the papal seat to Avignon, 1308; a measure productive of much civil discord in Rome, to which city it did not return during sixty-eight years. Clement VI., on his accession, bought the city of Avignon, and added it to the Roman state, to which it belonged for centuries after it had ceased to be the papal seat. During the contest which soon after followed between the Urbanists and Clementines, the anti-popes resided at Avignon, and fulminated their anathemas against their rivals of the capitol.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Duns Scotus, a theologian at Oxford, and founder of the *realists*, a logical sect, who asserted that things, not words, were the object of dialectics. He was called the Most Subtle Doctor. Dying of apoplexy, he was buried before the vital spark had fled; as was found on opening his coffin some time after, at Cologne. *Occam*, founder of the *nominalists*, in opposition to the *realists*, was a pupil under Duns Scotus. He was termed the Invincible Doctor, and affirmed that words, and not things, were the objects of dialectics. He became a Franciscan friar.

Buridan, born in Flanders, became professor of philosophy at Paris, and was a supporter of the *nominalists*. He is celebrated for an argument in favour of free-will, wherein he states the case of an ass placed between two bundles of hay, so arranged as to affect the senses of the animal in the same manner; when the ass, on the principle of necessity, was kept, by the equal operation of conflicting motives, undecided in the midst of plenty, until he died.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Dublin University founded. This university, usually called Trinity College, has, by a recent act of parliament, the privileges *ad eundem* with Oxford and Cambridge.—*Lincoln's Inn Society established*, 1310. There are four principal inns of court in London, the Inner and Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn and Gray's Inn. Like colleges in an university, they were instituted for young students in the law; and Henry III., in 1244, forbade the teaching of

law in any other schools than the inns. At the present day they are occupied as chambers by all professions; and the law-student is only obliged to be entered of one, and dine in the common-hall a certain number of times, before he is called to the bar, and legally qualified to plead and conduct causes.—*Earthenware* was first used in England.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.* 1282, Andronicus II., Paleologus.

Popes. 1305, Clement V. *Scotland.* 1320, Christopher II. *Portugal.* 1279, 1304, Edward I. and John Baliol restored; 1309, Robert I., Bruce. *France.* many (or *West*), 1298, Albert I. of 1285, Philip IV., the Fine; 1314, Louis; 1308, Henry VII.; 1313, X. Hutin; 1316, John I.; 1316, Philip V. the Long; 1322, Charles IV., the Fine. *Denmark.* 1286, Eric VIII.;

SECTION VII.

EDWARD III., KING OF ENGLAND.

1327 TO 1377—50 YEARS.

Personal History. Edward III. was born at Windsor, 1312, and married Philippa, daughter of William, count of Hainault, by whom he had twelve children. His eldest son *Edward*, prince of Wales, called the black prince, on account of wearing black armour, was born 1330, and married Joan, daughter of Edward earl of Kent, his uncle, by whom he had his only son, afterwards *Richard II.* By his valour, the provinces of Bretagne, Poitou, and Guienne were ceded to the English: and over these the king placed him, with the title of duke of Aquitaine. It was while residing in his foreign principality, that Peter the cruel sought refuge at his court, on being driven from Castile by Henry of Transtamare. In accomplishing the temporary restoration of that king, he lost his own health: and while engaged in a dispute with Charles V. on account of his refusal to do homage to the French crown, his failing health obliged him to return for medical advice to England. Here a consumption carried him off, to the great sorrow of the nation, at the age of forty-six, 1376, a year before the decease of his father. He was buried in Canterbury cathedral, where his monument is to be seen, having his effigy in complete armour, in a recumbent posture, with the arms raised in the attitude of prayer, finely executed in brass gilt, and surmounted by a rich canopy, in which are his gauntlets and the scabbard of his sword. King Edward's fourth son was *John of Gaunt* or Ghent. Edward was tall, majestic, and finely shaped, with a piercing eye, and aquiline visage. He excelled in feats of arms, was affable, and eloquent; and had the art of commanding the affections of his subjects, without seeming to solicit popularity. He was a constitutional knight-errant; and his example diffused the spirit of chivalry throughout the nation. The love of glory was his predominant passion and error; to the gratification of which he did not scruple to sacrifice, on occasion, the feelings of humanity, the lives of his subjects, and the interests of his country. Nothing could have induced the people to bear the load of taxes with which he encumbered them, but the love and admiration of his person, the fame of his victories, and the excellent laws and regulations which the parliament enacted with his concurrence. Edward is more to be lauded for his domestic government, than for his foreign victories; and England enjoyed under him a longer interval of domestic peace, than she had known in any former period, or than she experienced for many ages after.

Political History. At the moment of Edward's succession, being only eighteen, Robert Bruce, the old king of Scotland, invaded the northern frontier with his famous generals Murray and Douglas; and the young monarch, though he could not induce the enemy to fight, drove him back into his country. Having privately intimated his desire to punish the adulterous murderer of his parent, lord Montacute and a few other confidential lords accompanied him to Nottingham castle, where earl Mortimer and the

queen dowager resided. As the place was strictly guarded, it became necessary to communicate the design to Sir William Eland, the governor, who zealously took part in it. The king's party being admitted by a subterraneous passage, Mortimer all unprepared was seized in his apartment, carried before the parliament, condemned without trial, and hanged at the Elms near London. The queen dowager was hereupon confined to her house at Risinga, and her revenue reduced to 4000*l.* per annum; and though her royal son paid her a decent visit once or twice a year, she was never able to regain his affections. After several fruitless marches northward, in order to secure the Scottish throne to the son of the first Baliol, Edward's attention was roused by the state of affairs in France.

Philip de Valois, cousin of the former king, had just succeeded to the throne; but Edward claimed precedency, as nearer of kin by the mother's side. As the salic law prevailed in France, this amounted to nothing; and the young monarch was on the point of giving up his absurd pretensions, when the count d'Artois, Philip's brother-in-law, who was at enmity with his relative, forcibly urged him to proceed. D'Arteville, the rebellious brewer of Ghent, aided the designs of the English king, by bringing over the Flemings to his cause; and it was he who induced Edward to style himself sovereign of France, a title which all his successors, to George III. inclusive, in like manner assumed. The English having successfully attacked a large French fleet, which had attempted to land troops on the coast, sinking 230 of the ships, and destroying the almost incredible number of 30,000 men on board, Edward, when an insurrection against Philip occurred in Brittany, 1346, hastened to espouse the quarrel of the count de Montford, and met the French army, commanded by the king in person, at Crecy. Edward, prince of Wales, had the chief command under his father: some pieces of artillery were for the first time in Europe, with one exception, made use of by the English: the French had 120,000 men, and the English about a third of that number. Victory decided for Edward; and it is asserted that the loss of the French was 40,000, including the kings of Bohemia and Majorca, 1200 knights, 1400 gentlemen, and many of the principal nobility; while that of the English was out of all proportion small. The battle began at three in the afternoon; and, at dusk, the whole French army had taken to flight, pursued by the soldiers of the black prince, who, on his return to the camp, was received with open arms by his royal parent. Embracing him with ardour, he exclaimed, 'Persevere my son in your honourable course: you are indeed my son; for valiantly have you acquitted yourself to-day, and truly have you shown yourself worthy of empire!'

Meanwhile other generals of Edward were adding to his conquests, in Guienne and Brittany; but the king, little anxious to possess the dominion of France, contented himself with starving out the garrison of Calais, in which undertaking he employed a full year. While these matters were transacting, the Scots, under David II., entered England 1346, to the amount of 50,000, and ravaged the country as far as Durham; when queen Philippa, in the absence of her husband, heroically met them, and with an inferior force of 12,000, defeated them at Neville's Cross, bringing their king captive to London. Having secured her prisoner in the Tower, she hastened to Calais, and was received in the English camp before that place with all the triumph due to her rank, her merit, and her success, and with the characteristic chivalry and gallantry of the day. At length Jean de Vienne, the governor of Calais, desired to surrender; and Edward instantly peopled the town with English, making it the market for wool, leather, tin, and lead, the four chief commodities of England, to which foreign merchants willingly repaired to make purchases. By the treachery of the governor (Aimerie de Pavia, an Italian) appointed over the place at the surrender, the king had nearly lost his new

possession ; but with great spirit he crushed the conspiracy, and Calais remained an appendage to the British crown until the reign of Mary.

A truce now followed between the sovereigns of the two kingdoms, rather on account of the dreadful pestilence that ravaged Europe, than from any other cause ; during which Philip died, and was succeeded by John II. In 1356 the prince of Wales, encouraged by the success of his previous campaigns, ventured into the heart of France with only 12,000 men ; and at Maupertuis, near Poitiers, was met by king John, commanding an army of 60,000. We have here an instance of a young man of twenty-seven conducting a battle with all the skill of a veteran general, and displaying, when he had gained a victory in the face of hope, a degree of moderation and humanity honourable to the age of chivalry. The king of France was taken prisoner ; and the prince was no sooner acquainted with the event, than, with all the courtesy of knighthood, he hastened to meet him, sympathized with him, ascribed his own victory to Providence, and paid the fallen monarch the tribute of praise due to his great valour. He then ordered a repast for him, and himself served at the table, declaring that he was only a subject, and had not forgotten the respect which a crowned head was bound to exact. The generous example thus set by the prince, was imitated throughout the English army ; and all the prisoners were dismissed, on payment of a moderate ransom. Upon Edward's arrival in London, he caused his prisoner to ride through the streets of the city on a white steed of surpassing beauty, arrayed in royal apparel, while he himself bestrode a black palfrey by his side, clad in plain attire. Thus were two kings at one moment captives to the English monarch ; though both were ultimately released.

King Edward had the unhappiness, in the decline of life, not only to lose all his French acquisitions, save Calais, but to see also his valiant son sink prematurely into the grave ; calamities which he survived about a year only ; dying at Sheen, now Richmond, Surrey, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-first of his reign. He was buried in Westminster abbey, where his tomb is still to be seen, having thereon his figure of brass gilt, surrounded by statues of his children and others. It has been remarked, that there is no reign amongst those of the ancient British sovereigns so deserving of study, as that of Edward III.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Black Death, a dreadful pestilence, originating in the east, spread throughout Europe, 1348. Those whom it affected vomited blood, and died immediately. Every spot which the sick had touched spread the contagion ; and the eyes of the patient were considered especially capable of communicating the disorder. In London alone 58,000 died in five months ; and it was estimated that not more than a fifth of the population of the kingdom survived. In France the mortality was still greater, especially amongst persons of rank, at the head of which were two queens. In China thirteen millions fell a sacrifice ; India was comparatively depopulated ; Cyprus lost all its inhabitants ; Tar-

tary was strewed with the corpses of its wandering tribes ; and the pope published a statement, wherein he declared that, throughout the east, no less than thirty-seven millions had fallen victims to this terrible scourge ! The affection derived its epithet from the dark appearance of the bodies after death ; a frequent occurrence when the previous illness has been of short duration, arising from the sudden collapse of the blood-vessels.

Elevation of the Stuart Family. Robert II. (Stuart) ascended the Scottish throne, 1370, on the death, without issue, of David II. his uncle, who had so long been a prisoner, in right of his wife, a daughter of Robert I.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Insurrection of D'Arteville. This seditious brewer of Flanders headed an insurrection 1337, drove the earl into France, and ruled in his stead with singular ferocity. He was constantly accompanied by a guard, who, on the least signal, assassinated any one that happened to fall under his displeasure.

Surrender of Calais to England. The magnanimous conduct of St. Pierre, a native of Calais, deserves to be recorded. In 1347, when that town surrendered to Edward, the king harshly stipulated, that six of the richest citizens should be sent to him, to be disposed of as he thought proper; that they should come to the camp bareheaded and barefooted, carrying the keys of the city, and having ropes about their necks: on which condition he promised to spare the lives of the remaining inhabitants. When the matter was notified throughout the town, Eustace de St. Pierre stepped forth, and declared that he for one would encounter death to save his companions. Five others followed his heroic example: and all were conducted into the presence of king Edward. Queen Philippa, who had just arrived from her heroic expedition into Scotland, throwing herself on her knees, entreated her royal husband to spare them; and having obtained her request, she feasted them, and sent them back to the town in safety.

The Companions' League in France was a league entered into by the mercenary troops who had fought the battles under Edward. They amounted to 40,000 men, and fought pitched battles with the troops of France, inasmuch as to threaten the subversion of the monarchy. Their attention was, however, happily diverted by the attempt of Henry de Transtamare to dethrone his brother, Peter the cruel, king of Castile; in which enterprise they joined, and from that period gradually diminished.

The Golden Bull, issued by the

emperor Charles IV. 1356, is considered the Magna Charta of the German empire. It prevented a repetition of the contests which had always ensued when a vacancy occurred in the throne of the west; regulating the functions and privileges of the electors of the emperor. All ordinances of this period (not exclusively those of the pope), were called *bulls*, from *boule*, counsel, and were a letter on parchment, usually sealed with lead, but sometimes, as Charles's, with the precious metals.

Rise of the Rosicrucians. These German philosophers, affecting to have a perfect acquaintance with the occult, as well as with the humane sciences, declared themselves masters of the philosopher's stone, which they had received from the ancient Magi. They maintained the possibility of a perpetually burning lamp, and of perpetual motion; and are thought to have been the origin of our modern freemasons. They had their title from *ros*, dew, and *crux*, a cross, the latter being in chemistry the sign of light: it being affirmed that the philosopher's stone was dew and light concocted.

Rebellion of Henry de Transtamare. Peter, called the cruel, became king of Castile 1350 at the age of sixteen; and began his reign by the murder of his father's mistress, Leonora de Gusman. His nobles fell every day the victims of his severity: he put to death his cousin and one of his natural brothers, from groundless jealousy; and he caused his queen, Blanche de Bourbon, to be thrown into prison, and afterwards poisoned, that he might enjoy the society of the courtesan Maria de Padilla. Another queen was treated with like indignity, and Peter at length saw his subjects in rebellion against him, headed by Enrique de Transtamare, his half-brother, and supported by a French force under the brave Du Guesclin, constable of France. Peter fled upon this to Guienne, where Edward the

black prince then resided; and having obtained his powerful aid, was again seated on the throne by the victory of Najara, a battle which displayed the heroism and generalship of Edward, perhaps even more than the celebrated conflicts of Crescy and Poitiers. In this contest Edward took Du Gueschlin prisoner, but released him; and, although he afterwards repented of having aided so great a tyrant as Peter, he had the satisfaction of seeing that he had restrained him from executing his bloodthirsty vengeance on the prisoners he had taken, and of knowing that he had beaten the greatest general of the age. In no long period after Peter's restoration, de Transtamare again assailed him at Toledo; and killing him with his own hand, was acknowledged sovereign of Castile, by the title of Henry II. 1369.

Insurrection of Rienzi, famous for his attempt to restore the Roman republic. Though a common vintner's son, he obtained something of an education, and became a notary; and he formed one in a deputation of functionaries 1346, which waited on Clement VI. at Avignon, to implore his residence at Rome, the ancient papal seat. Clement, pleased with the energy displayed by the youthful Rienzi, made him an apostolic notary; but, while employed in his new office, he secretly inveighed against the pride of the nobles, and the errors of the government, and went so far as to assemble privately a large body of persons on mount Aventine, to discuss the question of a political change. In a second more public assembly, he produced the outline of a new constitution; and when proclaimed tribune by the mob, the governor, Colonna, and many of the leading nobles, sought safety in flight. A few bolder senators, however, who saw no cause for apprehension, remained to their cost; for Rienzi not only commenced an inquiry into their conduct, but put them to death for alleged oppression. The mildness he displayed

immediately after this sacrifice to justice, as he termed it, induced the pope to sanction his proceedings, and the emperor Louis to solicit his friendship; but the tribune soon threw off his mask, and stood confessed, neither a Brutus nor a Cato, but the Robespierre of Rome. With a strange mixture of religious and military ceremonial, he was invested with knighthood; presumptuously cited the rival emperors Charles and Louis to justify their pretensions in his presence; and, in the spirit of a modern leveller, commenced the humiliation of the ancient families of the capitol. But deficient in manly courage as he was bold in speech, at the first symptom of displeasure on the part of the mob, by which he had been raised, he secretly quitted Rome, and was not again heard of until captured by pope Clement; who, considering him insane, kept him three years a prisoner at Avignon. The next pope, however, Innocent VIII., regarded Rienzi as a man of talent; and when Baroucelli, writer for the senate, had raised a sedition in Rome, he sent him to cardinal Albornos, with a request that he would re-establish him as a senator, when he should see a convenient opportunity. Albornos, who knew Rienzi better than Innocent, made no haste to fulfil his desire; but when Baroucelli was massacred by the mob, the cardinal was compelled to state the pope's wish to the senate, and Rienzi was again elected one of their body. Instantly declaring himself tribune, by virtue of his former appointment, he called on the nobility to take the oath of fidelity; but the head of the house of Colonna refused compliance, and braved the tribune's deputies to the gates of Rome. Rienzi, having no money to raise forces, seized the chevalier de Monttrial, a legalized bandit chief, cut off his head, and possessed himself of his treasures; and, shortly after, put to death Pandolf, a man then held in high esteem for his probity by all parties. The lower classes appear to have

been the first to display their disapprobation of these violent acts; and surrounding the house of the capitol, where the tribune resided, made preparations for forcing the doors. Putting on a suit of armour, Rienzi appeared in a balcony of the edifice, making signs to be heard, and crying out 'Long live the people!' but finding all in vain, he commanded the doors to be thrown open, in the hope of saving himself during the pillage that would ensue. Having blackened his face, and put on the dress of a peasant, he threw a pillow over his head, and running down stairs, cried out, in a disguised voice, 'Go up, friends, go up, there is good spoil above!' Some one, however, caught sight of his golden bracelets, and snatching the pillow from his head, discovered the tribune. Being hurried to the spot where he had passed sentence of death upon so many, he was kept an hour exposed to the gaze of the rabble, in his ridiculous disguise; after which one of the mob plunged a poniard in his breast, which was the signal for a thousand others to do the same. This event occurred 1354. Petrarch, lamenting as he did the constant inroads upon the peace of Rome occasioned by the factions of its leading men, had hailed the rise of Rienzi, as that of a modern Brutus; but he had soon occasion to change his opinion of the man, of whose vaunted literary talents he thus speaks: 'I felicitate the muses and Rienzi! Heaven forbid I should envy him a name which is of such service to him: (alluding to his having been saved in a former tumult, by some one in the mob exclaiming 'We must not slay a poet on the soil of Virgil')—but if you desire to know my opinion, I believe he may have read all the poets; yet I think he no more merits the name of a poet himself, than he would deserve that of an embroiderer, because he wore an embroidered habit.'

Coronation of the dead Inez de

Castro. Pedro I., king of Portugal, succeeded his father, Alonso IV. (the brave), 1357. Alonso had long been at variance with Pedro, on account of his son's clandestine marriage with Inez de Castro, the daughter of a noble Castile exile, through whose influence many disaffected Castilians had been brought into Portugal, and preferred to high honours. Alonso was even induced to give his consent at length to the barbarous murder of Inez; whereon Pedro had raised the standard of rebellion, and deprived his father of almost all the north of Portugal. After much bloodshed, parent and son were reconciled; soon after which Alonso died, tormented by the remembrance of his murderous deed. Immediately upon finding himself sovereign, Pedro, still oppressed by his loss, resolved on a most extraordinary display of his grief to the nation. Summoning his nobles, he declared his intention to remove the corpse of his beloved wife from its tomb, and solemnly to enthrone it in their presence. On an appointed night, therefore, the body, divested of the trappings of the grave, was gorgeously apparelled, and conveyed to a splendid pavilion in the great church of Lisbon. The king having taken his stand by the side of the corpse, a brilliant diadem was placed by prelates upon its pale brow, and the nobles one by one approaching, did homage, and kissed the dead hand of Inez. The ceremony being finished, the body, still wearing the crown and royal habiliments, was borne back to the sepulchre; king Pedro, his face wrapt in his mantle, remaining until daybreak in mournful silence at the spot, whence the bearers had lowered the remains of Inez into the tomb beneath.

France under Philip VI., John II., and Charles V.—Philip VI. was opposed by Edward III., who claimed the French crown in behalf of his mother, Isabella. The French, however, decided in favour of Philip; and when Edward did homage to him for

territories he possessed in France, compelled to put his crown at the feet of his liege-lord, an insult occasioned the subsequent Invasion. John III., duke of Guyenne, dying, bequeathed his duchy to his niece Jane, countess of Blois; the count de Montford having seized it, the king's troops took him prisoner, and sent him to Paris. The count, on hearing of her captivity, headed the troops, having taken Hennebon, a town at strength, defended it with extraordinary watchfulness and vigour, and sent off in person the besieging forces of the count de Blois, and captured that nobleman. Jane, countess of Blois, opposed the countess of Flanders with equal valour; when the countess de Clisson, a third hero, of remarkable intrepidity, appeared in the contest, and having defended the coasts of Normandy, gained the battle of Aurai, and established the son of Montford in the duchy, 1364. Philip died after his defeat at Crécy.—John succeeded his father, Philip, and much trouble at the beginning of his reign, through the intrigues of Isabella of Navarre, that kingdom again independent of France; inviting Charles to a banquet, he treacherously seized him, and put him to death. The count de Harcourt to death. Soon after this event, that the Prince defeated John at Poitiers and carried him prisoner to England. During his exile, France was in the most disastrous condition, from the oppressive conduct of the nobles and the peasantry, the latter formed two dangerous leagues against the aristocracy, called the Jacquerie, the Navarrais, which were with difficulty suppressed. At length a sum of 1,500,000*l.* was agreed by the French for their monarch; the nation being unable to pay the sum at once, two of John's younger sons remained with the English as hostages, while John himself was re-

stored to his kingdom. The two princes, however, escaped to Paris; whereon John most honourably returned to the place of his captivity 1364; observing that, however other men acted, good faith ought ever to be found in the breast of kings. Soon after he had taken up his residence a second time in the Savoy, London, he died.—*Charles V.* after putting down the Navarrais, sent an army of his disaffected subjects under Du Guesclin, to aid Henry de Transtamare in his attempt to dethrone Pedro the cruel. As he was released from his English foes when the prince of Wales died, he proceeded to charge his restless enemy, Charles of Navarre, with an attempt to poison him; and deprived him of his possessions in France. That prince, having been advised by his physicians, soon after, to sleep in a dress that had been steeped in spirits of wine, it caught fire, and he was burned to death in his bed. After having materially benefited his country, and deprived the English of every stronghold therein but Calais, Charles died, 1380.

First Settlement of the Turks in Europe, 1360, when sultan Amurath I. got possession of Adrianople.

The Mongul Dynasty expelled from China. The family of Hupilay had formed the twentieth dynasty of the Chinese, which was expelled in the person of Shun-ti, by Chu, a Chinese of mean extraction, who contented himself with the title of king of the province of U, until he had seen his rival driven from all his strongholds, 1367; when he commenced the twenty-first dynasty of Tai-tsu.

First Dawn of the Reformation. Lyra, who had been converted from Judaism, wrote with so much fervour in defence of the Romish church, that its peculiar tenets became the subject of debate in most countries professing Christianity. Hence, it is said, Wickliffe openly expressed his opinions; and it was facetiously observed by a pope, after the establishment of the

Protestant faith, that 'had this lyre (Lyra) not played, Luther had not danced.'

CHIEF BATTLES. *Halidon-hill*, 1333, where the Scots were defeated by the English; *Crescy*, 1346, gained by Edward III. over the French; *Neville's Cross*, 1346, at which David, king of Scotland, was taken prisoner

by queen Philippa; *Poitiers*, 1356, wherein John, king of France, was taken captive by the black prince; *Najara*, in which the black prince took Du Guesclin, the greatest general of the age, prisoner; and which displayed the military talents of Edward more than any other of his conflicts.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Wickliffe, who led the way to the reformation, had been warden of Canterbury college, Oxford. In this capacity he gave offence to pope Gregory XI. by opposing the claims of the mendicant friars: whereon John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, warmly urged him to support the king in his attempt to evade the Roman tribute. During the contest which ensued, Wickliffe termed Gregory antichrist, charging him with various crimes: and the pope, in return, excommunicated him. Wickliffe being afterwards condemned by the chancellor of Oxford for loose notions concerning the eucharist, the duke deserted his cause; and being made to recant, he retired to his living of Lutterworth, Leicestershire, and died there.

Tamerlane, or Timour the Tartar, second only to Jenghiz Khan amongst the Mongul emperors, was descended from a branch of that founder's family, and succeeded to the throne, 1370. The chief country of the Monguls was at that time *Zagatai*, with *Samarcand* for a capital; but the enterprising spirit of Timour scorned boundaries of any kind, and Persia, Georgia, Siberia, and Hindostan, were overrun by his forces, with a precipitancy as paralyzing to every means of defence, as it was productive of the most glorious results in the eyes of the conqueror. Having entered Delhi, the capital of the Indies, his behaviour was such as rendered him worthy of the name by which he is still designated in Hindostan, *the destroying prince*. A general massacre of the defenceless inhabitants commenced; and it is affirmed that no less than 100,000 were put to death in a single hour.

After this terrible devastation, the Tartar marched into the provinces, and every where defeated the Indians who opposed him, destroying their Ghebres, or fire-worshippers; and while thus employed, was informed of the efforts of the sultan Bajazet of Turkey to wrest Georgia and Asia Minor from his dominion. After a two years' war, he took Bajazet prisoner, near Angora, 1402, and carried him wherever he marched in an iron cage, to be the gaze and sport of the rabble. Little satisfied with the vast territory now under his sway, Timour was preparing to enter China, when death arrested his progress, 1405, in the seventieth year of his age. The descendants of this extraordinary man still reside in Hindostan, and one of them receives from certain tribes all the respect due to the Mongul emperor: but the power of this Tartar dynasty is entirely vested in the English East India Company. Mahomet, grandson of Timour, succeeded to the throne; but soon saw his vast empire dwindle to almost its original insignificance.

Petrarch, of Tuscany, the most celebrated lyric poet of the Italians, was educated for the law; but being possessed of a competent fortune, devoted himself to literary pursuits at Vaucluse, near Avignon. Here he celebrated, in verses which have immortalized his name, the virtues of the beautiful Laura de Sades. He was crowned with the poetic laurel at Rome, 1341; and passed the remainder of his life as an ecclesiastic, beloved by popes, princes, and the literati of his country, dying at Arqua, near Padua. His sonnets are esteemed

the sweetest and most elegant productions in the Italian language.

Boccaccio, the friend of Petrarch, who induced him to quit debauchery, rose to eminence as a diplomatist between Florence and Rome. He wrote many poems : but his fame rests on his 'Decamerone,' a prose-work, consisting of 100 stories, feigned to have been related in ten days by a company of ladies and gentlemen, who had retired to a country villa to avoid the plague at Florence. Queen Joanna of Naples is said to have urged him to this work ; but though the stories are full of humour, admirably told, and in many instances of a moral tendency, the details are often extremely licentious. An early copy of this book sold at the duke of Roxburgh's sale to the duke of Marlborough for 2260*l*.!

Chaucer, who from the *Teseide* of Boccaccio worked up his admirable 'Knight's Tale,' is called the father of English poetry, and was the first who wrote verse with elegance. His productions, though chiefly translations from the French and Italian, have all the spirit of genuine poetry ; and are remarkable for their forcible and splendid imagery. He was educated at Oxford, was a follower of Wickliffe, and his patron was John of Gaunt.—*Gower*, also an English poet, but of no other merit than as a sententious didactic writer, was of good family ; and Chaucer used to call him the moral Gower.

Hafiz, the most popular of Persian poets at this day, wrote in Anacreon's style, and refused to lose his liberty in sultan Ahmed's court at Bagdad. His maxim was, 'that two affectionate friends, two glasses of old wine, a tranquil indolence, a book, and a shady grove, were blessings not to be sacrificed for worldly grandeur.'

Sir John Hawkwood, one of the earliest English generals, was bred a tailor, but as Fuller says, turned his needle into a sword, and his thimble into a shield, at the sound of Edward's trumpet. Finding himself too poor after the peace of Bretigni, 1360, to maintain his rank in the army, he took

command of a mercenary marauding party amongst the Ghibellines in Italy ; and died at a great age at Florence, leaving a large sum for the establishment of an English hospital there.

Cantacuzenus, the Byzantine historian (author of a history of his own times), became regent of the Eastern empire by the will of Andronicus III., 1342, for his son John ; but was compelled to take the purple himself by the soldiers. A civil war raged in consequence for three years, headed by the empress-mother, in which Cantacuzenus was victorious ; but in 1355 he retired to a monastery, leaving his ward to enjoy the regal dignity unmolested.

Barlaam, a monk of Calabria, who, when sent on an embassy to Rome by Cantacuzenus, singularly revived the taste for Greek literature in the west.—*Matthew of Westminster*, author of a chronological history from the Creation to A. D. 1307, still extant.—*Castruccio*, who had been found in a heap of leaves at Lucca, when an infant, and brought up by the monks, was made sovereign of Lucca by the people, for his bravery as a Ghibelline leader ; and though the Florentines, jealous of his elevation, endeavoured to dethrone him, they were unable.—*Cauliac*, whose experience in the Black Death made him very celebrated. He wrote on Surgery in Italy, and is said to have restored the ancient practice of that art, by his Arabian researches.

SOVEREIGNS. Eastern Empire.
1282, Andronicus II. Paleologus ; 1328, Andronicus III. Paleologus ; 1341, John VI. Paleologus ; 1341, John V. 1354, Matthew Calacuzenus. *Popes.* 1305, Clement V. ; 1328, Nicholas V. ; 1330, John XXII. ; 1347, Rienzi ; 1377, Gregory XI. *Scotland.* 1309, Robert I. Bruce ; 1329, David II. Bruce ; 1332, Edward Baliol ; 1333, David II. Bruce restored ; 1370, Robert II. *France.* 1322, Charles (the Fine) ; 1328, Philip VI. of Valois ; 1350, John II. (the Good) ; 1364, Charles V. (the Wise). *Sweden.* 1327, Magnus III. restored ; 1365, Albert. *Denmark.*

1320, Christopher II.; 1334, Interregnum; 1340, Waldemar III.; 1373, Margaret; 1375, Olaus V. and Margaret. *Norway*. 1326, Hacon V.; 1328, Magnus VI.; 1369, Olaus IV.; 1375, Hacon VI. *Portugal*. 1325,

Alphonso IV.; 1357, Pedro I.; 1367, Ferdinand. *Germany (or West)*. 1314, Louis V.; 1347, Charles IV. of Bohemia; 1348, Frederick of Misnia; 1349, Gonthier de Schwartzbourg.

INVENTIONS.

Windsor Castle rebuilt on a magnificent scale by Edward III. When the Conqueror had found the spot adapted to the chase, he bought the ground of the monastery of Westminster, and erected a palace to which he occasionally repaired. In 1070 he held a court there, and laying out the surrounding lands in parks to a great extent, the place became the residence of the founder's successors. Henry I. considerably enlarged the turreted part: Henry III. greatly strengthened its fortifications: and in the baronial wars of his reign, it was several times taken and retaken. Edward III., besides re-erecting the palace, built the collegiate chapel of St. George, and the hall; the latter being intended for a banqueting-room for the knights of the garter. The two captive kings were prisoners here. Edward VI. and queen Mary both resided at Windsor; and queen Elizabeth constructed the beautiful terrace. The parliament kept the place during their contest with Charles I. The succeeding Stuarts embellished it; but it was left for George III. and George IV. to render Windsor Castle the noblest work of the fortress and palatial kind in the world. Listen to what M. Von Raumer, a recent German visitor, says of this truly regal estate. 'Windsor far exceeded my expectations, and made a greater impression on me than all the other castles I had seen, put together. It combines the bold originality of the middle ages with the highest pitch of splendour and comfort of our own times. It is not a monotonous repetition of the same sort of rooms; but every staircase, gallery, room, hall, nay every window, is different, surprising, peculiar. In Windsor, I fully understood that Shakspeare was an English-

man. Here his romantic world finds a local habitation. As we passed through the green meadows, and among the ancient oaks and beeches, where the wildest nature is interspersed with beautiful gardens and quiet lakes, I felt that I was on the spot where the Henries had reigned, and acted their great and gorgeous tragedies; where, in moonlight nights, Oberon and Titania still sport with their fairy troops, or Rosalind wanders in the forest, or Jaques indulges his melancholy musings.'

Impressment of Seamen commenced 1355. The right of forcibly seizing upon a man, and making him serve on board a ship, though often questioned, and only justifiable on occasions of great emergency, would seem to have existed, according to lord Mansfield, from time immemorial; but no legal mention is made of the fact until the reign of Edward III. Lord chancellor Thurlow was pressed by a gang 1779; but, luckily, not being 'fit for the service' (as that is a requisite point) his lordship was released.

Subjugation of the Isle of Man. This isle, anciently Mona, became the seat of the Druids, when expelled by the Romans from Britain; and St. Patrick converted its residents to Christianity. Its last native king was Magnus, at whose death Alexander III. of Scotland seized it: it then fell to Edward I. of England, as liege lord of John Baliol. The people having thrown off their allegiance to England during the troubles of Edward II.'s reign, Montacute, earl of Salisbury, subdued them 1342, and was allowed to hold the isle in perpetuity by Edward III. During the Tudor reigns, it was disposed of to the earls of Derby, from whom it

descended to the duke of Athol; but in the reign of George III. it was purchased by the crown, and made a regular portion of the British empire. It is about thirty miles long, and varies from five to nine miles in breadth. Its soil is fertile; and the place having many privileges, as regards a remission of taxes, is now the resort of persons whose incomes are too small for the more expensive living of England. The bishopric of Sodor and Man, though trifling in point of revenue, has been held by many most excellent divines; amongst whom was the pious bishop Wilson, 1696.

The Canary, or Fortunate Islands, were discovered by the Spaniards: and then included Madeira. They had, however, been known to the Carthaginians, and most probably to the ancient Egyptians; as bodies of the dead are found there embalmed, precisely by the same mode as those in Egypt. These isles are celebrated for their wines, first produced by the Spaniards: and the canary-bird is one of their most common feathered inhabitants. It is ludicrously recorded of an English ambassador at Rome, that, through ignorance of geography, he hurried homewards on hearing that the pope had given the Fortunate Islands to the king of Spain, imagining that England and Ireland could alone be meant.

Gunpowder was first made 1330, by Berthold Schwartz, a monk of Cologne, and *cannons* were first used by the Moors when besieged in Algeziras by Alphonso of Castile, 1344, four years before their introduction at the battle of Crecy by Edward. These inventions soon changed the whole art of war.

St. Stephen's Chapel, long afterwards celebrated as the room of assembly of the English commons, was rebuilt by Edward III., 1347. It had been originally part of the palace of Edward the Confessor, and had been repaired by king Stephen, and dedicated to his name-saint. It was not until the reformation that the chapel

was occupied by the house of commons. This venerable edifice was destroyed, with the other house of parliament, 1834.

Crest of the Prince of Wales. The Black Prince, upon the fall of the aged and blind king of Bohemia at Crecy, adopted his crest, a plume of ostrich feathers, with the motto 'Ich Dien,' I serve.—*Silk weaving* introduced into England from Flanders by John Kempe.—*Law-Pleadings carried on in English*, instead of French, for the first time since the Norman conquest.—*Heidelberg University founded*, being the first in Germany.—*The Herald's College founded* in London, for the due registration of arms and tracing of genealogies.—*The Order of the Garter instituted*. It is said that the countess of Salisbury having dropped her garter at a ball, king Edward picked it up, and observing the smiles of his courtiers, exclaimed 'Honi soit qui mal y pense!' and that an Order, which was then on the point of being founded, thus received its name and motto.—*The Janizaries instituted*, a body-guard of the Turkish sultan. It has recently been suppressed, as dangerous to the monarchy. The office of *Grand Vizier* also was founded by the sultan, in imitation of the Saracens.—*Gold first coined in England*, 1344.—*Turnpikes first allowed* in England, 1350, for the purpose of making and keeping in repair the roads. The turnpike-roads are now placed under trustees appointed by act of parliament: by them the toll-collectors are chosen, and mile-stones and direction-posts erected. It was in the latter part of George III.'s reign that roads were constructed upon a new principle by Mr. M'Adam; and all that have been laid down agreeably to his plan are said to have been *macadamized*. The external advantages of the change are the speedy drying of the road after rain, from the arched pitching of the ground, and the saving of shaking and noise, by the substitution of earth or pulverized stones for pavement.

SECTION VIII.

RICHARD II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1377 TO 1399—22 YEARS.

Personal History. Richard II., the only surviving child of the black prince, was but ten at the decease of his grandfather. He was born at Bordeaux 1367; and the want of education for his high office, may be considered the chief cause of the misfortunes of his reign. Since his character has been transmitted to us by his violent enemies, the Lancastrians, we must judge of him by general events rather than by their statements. He was constitutionally brave; but so confiding and good-tempered, that the turbulent barons, who had been only kept down by the firm conduct of his predecessor, frightened him into concessions: and whenever he attempted, as Edward had done, to evade compliance, he was invariably misled by the suggestions of some ruling favourite, who urged him to act beneath his dignity as a monarch, and contrary to his honour as a man. The manners of the age were the principal source of the violence which ensued: both sides were guilty; but the king was infinitely less cruel when victor, than were his adversaries on like occasions. He married first Anne, daughter of the emperor Charles IV., known for her kindness of heart as 'the good queen Anne'; and, secondly, Isabel, daughter of Charles VI. king of France, a child of seven years; but left no issue. The palace of Richard II., and which he made his town residence, was on the site of what is now called the Oval, at Kennington. The structure was erected by his grandfather, Edward III., for Edward the black prince; and the road still called Prince's road, is that by which the prince approached the palace on landing at Lambeth-stairs.

Political History. The king's three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, were guardians of the realm during his minority; and their prosecution of the war with France, together with the supplies afforded to the duke of Lancaster in his attempt to gain the crown of Castile, occasioned such expenses, that a tax of three groats was obliged to be levied throughout the kingdom upon every person male and female above fifteen, 1380. A blacksmith in Essex, having, in a dispute, killed one of the collectors of this tax, a general insurrection of the lower orders ensued; and 100,000 men were in a few days in arms on Blackheath, under one Wat Tyler. With a small force, the rebel ventured to the Tower of London, put to death many men of rank there, and spread terror throughout the city; but the king, now sixteen years of age, wonderfully raised the hopes of the people on this trying occasion. Accompanied by Walworth, mayor of London, he met Tyler in Smithfield, and inquired into the cause of his violence. Tyler, without any reply, lifted his sword, as if to strike him; whereupon Walworth, at the risk of both his own and the king's life, felled the rebel with his mace. Richard, on seeing the other insurgents advancing, manfully rode forwards exclaiming, 'Your general is dead! but I will henceforth be your leader;' and promised them full redress of their grievances, if they would wait a day or two for the necessary treaties to be signed. Having obtained this valuable delay, the nobility and gentry flocked from all parts of the country to the king's assistance, overawed the rioters by an army of 40,000 men, and passed sentence of death upon the leaders.

In 1385, Richard, with 60,000 picked soldiers, entered Scotland, to punish that people for their frequent incursions; he soon tired, however, of his expedition, and returning southward, began that fearful contest with his peers, which

only ended with his premature death. The king's advancement of Vere, earl of Oxford, to the sovereignty of Ireland for life, was the first ground of offence ; and the barons, to show their displeasure, removed the king's chancellor, Pole, earl of Suffolk, and appointed fourteen commissioners to conduct the government for a year. Richard, now twenty-one, naturally opposed this arbitrary proceeding ; whereon the duke of Gloucester put to death, without trial, several of the king's advisers, especially Sir Simon Burley, for whose life queen Anne in vain pleaded on her knees for two hours. So imperfect is the English history at this period, that Richard is, without visible cause, soon reconciled to his uncles and the barons, and allowed to rule alone. For the next eight years no important event occurred. The duke of Lancaster, who had failed in his attempt on Castile, returned from Spain ; and his authority, as he was attached to his nephew, served to counterbalance that of Gloucester, who being detected, 1397, of a design upon the throne, was banished to Calais, and there assassinated.

A fresh sort of contention now arose. The duke of Hereford, eldest son of the duke of Lancaster, accused the duke of Norfolk of alleging that Richard had purposed the destruction of many more of the nobles than had fallen in consequence of Gloucester's conspiracy. Norfolk denied the charge ; and when a public duel was fixed to be the issue, the king banished Norfolk for life, and Hereford for ten years. As the old duke of Lancaster died soon after, the king would not suffer Hereford to succeed to his estates : but upon Richard's departure for Ireland, the disinherited Lancaster appeared at the head of 60,000 men, with a full determination to dethrone his kinsman. The king was soon captured, and Lancaster declared rightful heir of king Henry III., there being a vulgar tradition that Edward I. was the younger son of that Henry, and had been put before his brother Lancaster, on account of some deformity of person. Richard, now confined in Pontefract castle, Yorkshire, is said to have voluntarily starved himself in a few days, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and 23d of his reign, his body being publicly shown to prove he had died a natural death. He was buried at Langley, but afterwards removed to Westminster ; where his tomb is still to be seen, with that of his virtuous queen Anne, in the Confessor's chapel.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Rebellion of Wat Tyler, 1381, as in the history.

Sedition of John Bull. This ill-named anarchist went about the country inculcating the equality of man, his right of liberty in all matters, and the evils of society ; producing much disturbance at the period of Tyler's insurrection. He was the author of the well-known couplet,

'When Adam delved and Eve span,
Where was then the gentleman?'

The King's Profusion was extraordinary. Harding, a poet who lived at the time, was assured by a clerk of the green cloth, that 10,000 persons composed the royal household, whereof 300 were in the kitchen ; and all had tables at the king's cost.

Rise of the Lollards. The followers of Wickliffe, so called from a German word, signifying psalm-singers, entered into violent disputes with the clergy in England, and were constantly persecuted in various ways.

Highland Feuds. It was in the reign of Robert III., who ascended the Scottish throne 1390 (having changed his name of John, on account of the misfortunes of John of England, John of France, and John Baliol), that the Highland clans were in constant collision. On one occasion, 1396, two powerful parties of them deputed each thirty champions to fight out a quarrel of old standing, in presence of the king and his court at Perth ; and this fact is the foundation of Scott's tale of the

'Fair Maid of Perth,' wherein the character of the king, of his ambitious brother, the duke of Albany, and of his dissolute son, the duke of Rothesay, are faithfully depicted.

England under the Plantagenets. The people under their sway had gradually lost all traces of the Anglo-Saxon character: the language was now a compound of Latin, German, and Norman French. The study of theology was alone attended to by those inclined to literature, if we except the taste for poetry introduced by the Provençals. Architecture was a good deal encouraged by the monks; who not only projected, but assisted in rearing, those beautiful Gothic cathedrals, of which some remain to this day. The dress of both men and women of rank was grotesque, but sumptuous. The gentlemen wore chains of gold and silver, from their knees to

the points of their shoes, and stockings of which the colour varied on each leg, a long beard, and a bonnet fastened under the chin. The ladies were marked by the height of their head-dresses, and the length of their trains. The floors of apartments were covered with hay or straw in winter, and with green boughs in summer. Gardening was much cultivated, especially in the monasteries, and excellent wine was made from English grapes. Sculpture in wood and painting in oil were practised by the monks; but the useful arts of medicine and surgery were little attended to. On the whole England had, notwithstanding its frequent internal commotions, made some progress in arts and sciences, and a very marked one in commerce; and, but for the succeeding wars of the Roses, would probably have soon equalled the comparative refinement of France and Italy.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Contest of the Clementines and Urbanists. Pope Urban V. had, in order to allay the tumults so frequent since the removal of the papal see to Avignon, taken up his abode in Rome, 1367; but as no good appeared to result from the measure, he returned joyfully to Avignon 1370. His successor, Gregory XI., passed his pontificate also in France; but at his death in 1378, the populace of Rome chose a pope of their own, Prignano of Naples, who took the title of Urban VI., while the cardinals at Avignon elected Robert de Geneva, with the name of Clement VIII. A schism now began, which lasted thirty-eight years; during which the wars of the Clementines and Urbanists continually disturbed the peace of Europe. The English were Urbanists, and on one occasion sent the bishop of Norwich, at the head of 60,000 men, to Flanders, to attack the Clementines, who were supported by the French. The second popedom was abolished 1416.

The Union of Calmar. Margaret of Waldemar, daughter of the king of Denmark, and wife of Haquin, king of

Norway, ascended the united throne of Denmark and Norway (in failure of the male branches) 1387. When the Swedes also offered her their crown, on account of their dislike of Albert, their king, this Scandinavian Semiramis made war with that sovereign, and after a contest of seven years, was declared sole ruler of the three states, by a treaty called the Union of Calmar, 1397.

Foundation of the Borgite Dynasty of Mamluks. It was the early practice of the Tartar conquerors to leave the cultivation of the soil of any vanquished territory to the native peasants; and to employ the prisoner taken in war, or the purchased slave, in domestic or military service only. The rulers of Egypt, after Saladin, had found the negro race best calculated for in-door, and the white for warlike purposes: so that it became customary to buy Nubian slaves for household, and Georgian and Circassian slaves for the army. As the Mamluk beys had continued this usage from the period of their successful rebellion (before mentioned) they were surrounded by military adherents, not unfrequently the

neighbours, and sometimes the relatives, of their masters in the country whence both derived their origin. The republic of the beys could only be perpetuated by the adoption of these cognate servants, as heirs to the wealth, and successors to the dominion of their lords; for so banefully does the elimate of Egypt exert its influence upon the constitution of those born without its precincts, that offspring are denied to the foreigner, or if not denied, are of that sickly and feeble nature, which wholly unfits them for active life. It must not be matter of wonder, then, that slaves, numerous out of all proportion to their owners, and accustomed to look with anxiety to the removal by nature or war of those who had no higher title to their honours than that which possession afforded them, should combine, under circumstances, to unseat them; and such was the case in 1382. The

borgites, or commanders of forts, caring little to join an expedition projected by the beys, deposed them, put to death such as resisted, and were acknowledged in due form by the host of Mamluks, who secretly entertained the hope of being able at some future day to supplant them in a similar manner.

Battle of Aljubarota. John I., king of Portugal, natural son of Peter the cruel, obtained the throne to the exclusion of his niece, Beatrix. John, king of Castile, the husband of Beatrix, opposed him; but the usurper defeated him at Aljubarota 1385; and in his haste to escape, the Castilian abandoned his tent and temporary chapel, with all their rich and jewelled furniture, amongst which were some rock-crystal candlesticks, and a cross studded with sapphires, of immense value; all of which long adorned the royal cabinet of Portugal.

EMINENT PERSONS.

John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, uncle of king Richard, and father of his supplanter, appears to have been a warlike and manly character. By his second marriage, with the daughter of the king of Castile, he considered himself entitled to that crown. From his third wife, Catherine Swinford, descended Henry VII. He was more than seven feet in height.

Valentine, a chemist, who discovered the medical virtues of antimony. He was a Benedictine of Erfurt.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.* 1354, Mathew Calcuzenus; 1386,

Andronicus Paleologus; 1382, John and Manuel II. Paleologus; 1391, Manuel II. alone. *Popes.* 1377, Gregory XI.; 1378, Urban VI.; 1389, Boniface IX. *Scotland.* 1370, Robert II. 1390, Robert III. *France.* 1364, Charles V., the Wise; 1380, Charles VI., the Well-beloved. *Denmark.* 1375, Olaus V. and his mother, Margaret; 1387, Margaret alone; 1397, Eric IX. and Margaret. *Portugal.* 1367, Ferdinand; 1383, Interregnum, then John I. *Germany* (or *West*). 1349, Gonthier; 1378, Wenceslaus of Bohemia.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Paper from Linen first made at Nuremberg.—*Greenland*, our present whale-fishery, first discovered by a Venetian.—*The first Navigation Law* in England passed, by which it was enacted that no goods could be exported or imported by Englishmen in foreign vessels.—*Bombs* invented.—*Cards* invented for the amusement of Charles VI. of France, when in a fit of melancholy.—*Side-saddles* introduced

into England by the good queen Anne, before which the ladies rode on horseback as men do.—*Westminster-hall* mostly rebuilt, and greatly enlarged: the venerable edifice has received no very substantial repair from that period to our day.—*The Poet-Laureate's Stipend.* Chaucer would seem to be the first royal poet to whom an allowance of a gallon of wine per day was made. He had lost court-favour

during the early part of Richard's reign; but through John of Gaunt he was restored to his various offices. Warton shows that a royal poet, writing occasional verses in Latin, was about the English kings before the time of Richard I.; but whether crowned with the laurel or not, does not appear. The origin of the laureateship would seem to be simply that the king usually chose a laureated student of either University, it having been the practice, at Oxford especially, in former days, to give a laurel crown, with a degree

in grammar and rhetoric, to the scholar who should write the best Latin ode in praise of Alma Mater. Wine appears to have been allowed to a harper so early as Henry III. by a pipe-roll still extant; Charles I. settled both a salary and the wine upon his laureate; and at the present time the office is rewarded with an annual stipend of 127*l.* and 27*l.* for the purchase of a cask of Canary.—*Peers first created* by patent.—*Benevolences*, or voluntary offerings of money to the sovereign, commenced.

PERIOD THE THIRTEENTH.

The House of Lancaster.

1399 TO 1471—72 YEARS.

SECTION I.

HENRY IV., KING OF ENGLAND.

1399 TO 1413—14 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry IV. was born 1367 in Bolingbroke castle, Lincolnshire, and married first Mary, daughter of Humfrey de Bohun, earl of Hereford, by whom he had six children; and secondly Joan, daughter of Charles II., king of Navarre, by whom he had no issue. Amongst his children were, *Henry V.*; *Humphrey*, called the good duke of Gloucester; and *Philippa*, married to Eric X. of Denmark. Henry was of the middle stature, stern in countenance, and reserved in manner. He possessed courage and penetration; was naturally imperious, but had great command over his temper; and his reign was on the whole beneficial to his country. As he had reached his eminence by rebellion, he is said secretly to have deplored his conduct, when he had time to reflect; and to have endeavoured to shape his actions, so as to compensate the state for his former violence.

Political History. As, by the death of Richard, the heir of the house of Mortimer (Edmund, earl of March, descended by the mother's side from Lionel, son of Edward III.) had been declared heir to the crown by the parliament, Henry kept that young prince in honourable custody at Windsor, and directed his attention to a conspiracy entered into for his own destruction by lords Rutland, Kent, Huntingdon, and Spenser. Rutland, however, having betrayed his colleagues, they were executed; and this man, who had been the chief agent in Gloucester's murder at Calais, became soon after, by his father's death, duke of York, and consequently first prince of the blood. To gain over the clergy, Henry began the persecution of the Lollards, and was the first English monarch to punish religious errors by the faggot; he also endeavoured to divert the minds of the people from the question of his succession, by joining in the papal contest abroad; but the frequent combinations amongst his

nobles to depose him, together with their private quarrels, compelled him to remain in England, and allowed him no interval of quiet throughout his reign.

At the same moment that Henry had sent troops to the aid of his friend, lord Gray de Ruthyn, in his feud with Owen Glendower, a Welsh noble, the earl of Northumberland, who had mainly contributed to the king's elevation, took umbrage at a royal mandate, which compelled him to give up as state-prisoners, earl Douglas and other men of rank, whom he had captured in the north. Northumberland went so far as to despatch Hotspur, his son, to the assistance of Glendower; and Henry and the prince of Wales lost no time in meeting the combined forces at Shrewsbury, 1403. The Welsh were completely beaten, and Hotspur slain, though at the expense of the flower of Henry's army; and the king had scarcely witnessed the issue of this contest, when he heard of the rebellion of lord Nottingham and the archbishop of York. This was put down by the earl of Westmoreland; and Northumberland, who had joined the insurrection, though pardoned for his conduct at Shrewsbury, was soon after slain in an attempt to recover his confiscated estates. Just before his death, which occurred in his forty-seventh year, in a sudden fit, while in the Jerusalem chamber, Westminster, Henry refused to alienate the property of the church, though strongly urged to do so by the commons. His remains were interred in Canterbury cathedral; where his recumbent figure, and that of his wife Joan, are yet to be seen, finely carved in alabaster.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Captivity of Prince James of Scotland. Robert III. having cause to suspect the ambitious designs of his brother, had at the close of his life sent James, his youngest son, to France for protection; but the vessel chosen to convey him being driven by a storm upon the English coast, the prince was detained by Henry, who kept him at his court, and gave him an education which qualified him, when he afterwards ascended the Scottish throne, to reform the barbarous manners of his subjects. The knowledge of his captivity, however, produced so fatal an effect on his parent, that

he fainted, and refusing food, died in three days after.

The Maiming Act passed, whereby it was henceforth felony to cut out a man's tongue, or put out his eyes, in private quarrel; a singular proof of the previous barbarity of the times.

The Distemper, a species of influenza, carried off 30,000 souls in London alone, 1407.

The first English Martyr. William Sawtre, rector of St. Oswyth, London, was burned by order of Henry IV., 1401, for his adherence to the principles of Wickliffe; and was the first Englishman who suffered martyrdom.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Dethronement of Wenceslaus. He had succeeded his father, Charles IV., as emperor of Germany, when only fifteen; and from his well-conducted youth, had given hopes of a glorious reign. The opinion, however, usually entertained by subjects of their sovereign while in his minority, is singularly opposed, in the history of all nations, to their notions of the same

character, when developed by the maturity of years; and Wenceslaus, for his alleged tyranny and debauchery, was deposed 1400, and Robert, count-palatine, elected in his room.

Death of Bajazet. This sultan of the Turks was laying siege to Constantinople, when Tamerlane invaded his dominions, and took him prisoner, 1402; an event which forms the sub-

ject of Rowe's popular tragedy. The conqueror is said to have carried his captive about in a cage, as a spectacle, in consequence of the previous threat of the Turk so to treat Timour should

he fall into his power. The humiliated sultan, tortured by rage and despair, beat out his brains against the iron-work of his prison, 1403.

EMINENT PERSONS.

John Huss, the follower of Wickliffe, was a Bohemian divine, who, inveighing against the scandalous lives of the clergy, the sale of indulgences, and the many innovations of his church, was condemned by Pope John XXIII. at the council of Constance, to be burned for heresy; which was accordingly done, 1415, and his ashes thrown into the Rhine. His pupil, Jerome of Prague, in like manner suffered, 1416.

William of Wykeham, born of poor parents, became surveyor of the works at Windsor to Edward III.; but nearly lost the royal favour by his inscription on a part of the castle, 'This made Wykeham.' On being called to explain the object of the writing, he declared it to import, not that his unaided talent had effected so noble a work, but that the king's bounty, in employing him upon it, had enriched him. He subsequently took orders, and became not only bishop of Winchester, but chancellor; and instituted the noble college of Winchester for seventy scholars, with a warden, ten fellows, three chaplains, three clerks, sixteen choristers, and two masters; as a preparatory school for his foundation at Oxford, which he endowed 1380, and called New college.

Sir William Gascoigne, the in-

trepid judge, who, when prince Henry, the riotous son of Henry IV., struck him in court for condemning one of his debauched companions, committed him to prison; a course which the king approved by exclaiming, 'Happy the sovereign, who has a judge so completely fearless to administer justice; and still happier, who has a son so ready to obey the laws!'

Arundel, archbishop of Canterbury, who greatly enriched the cathedral of his see, but was furiously inimical to the Lollards. Both Sawtre and Lord Cobham are said to have suffered at his suggestion.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire.*

1391, Manuel II. *Popes.* 1389, Boniface IX.; 1404, Innocent VII.; 1406, Gregory XII.; 1409, Alexander; 1410, John XXIII. *Scotland.* 1390, Robert III. *France.* 1380, Charles VI. *Sweden.* 1396, Eric XIII. and Margaret; 1412, Eric XIII. alone. *Denmark.* 1397, Eric IX. and Margaret; 1412, Eric IX. alone. *Norway.* 1388, Margaret of Denmark; 1412, Eric III. or IX., when Norway was reunited to Denmark. *Portugal.* 1383, John I. *Germany (or West).* 1378, Wenceslaus; 1400, Frederick of Brunswick; 1400, Robert of Bavaria; 1410, Sigismund.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Oil Painting first practised at Bruges by John Van Eyck, 1410.—*Guildhall, London, built*, and the two gigantic figures of Gog and Magog sculptured and placed therein. They are supposed to represent a Saxon, and an ancient Briton. Much alteration took place in the form of this hall after the fire of 1666.—*St. Andrew's University founded* in Scotland.—

Algebra first introduced from Arabia into Europe.—*The Order of the Bath* instituted by Henry.—*Collars of S. S.* first worn by created esquires, in imitation of the collar worn at Rome by a body of noble persons, in memory of the martyrdom of St. Simplicius and his brother Faustinus in Diocletian's reign.

SECTION II.

HENRY V., KING OF ENGLAND.

1413 TO 1422—9 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry V. was born at Monmouth 1389, and married Katherine, daughter of Charles VI. of France, by whom he had one child, *Henry IV.* After the king's death, Katherine became the wife of Sir Owen Tudor, and from that marriage descended Henry VII. The early life of Henry V. was one of extraordinary riot, although we must allow for the barbarity of the times, and the exaggeration of historians. According to Shakspeare's account, he herded with the vilest fellows at common pot-houses; and did not refrain from highway robbery. His presence was engaging, his stature above the middle size, and his gait easy. He excelled in all warlike and manly exercises; and as a king, displayed many eminent virtues both in the cabinet and the field. The boldness of his military enterprises was no less remarkable than his personal valour in conducting them; and the people became reconciled to his defective title, when they saw his care to maintain justice in civil matters. On the whole, we may affirm with truth, that there have been few instances amongst the early British monarchs of a character so princely, generous, noble, and disinterested, as that of Henry V.

Political History. The first step taken by the reformed 'prince Hal' gave great joy to the nation. He dismissed his riotous companions, kept the wise ministers of his father, notwithstanding their previous severity towards him, and displayed a wish to conciliate all parties. He did justice to the memory of the unhappy Richard, by performing his funeral obsequies with much pomp, and by rewarding all who had evinced loyalty for that king. He received the young earl of March, whom his father had kept prisoner, with singular courtesy and favour; and so gained upon his affections, that he never offered him any disturbance by preferring his claim to the throne, however tempted so to do. The Percies were restored to their estates; and in a word, Henry convinced his people that he wished to bury for ever all traces of former contention.

With the enthusiasm of the Lollards, Henry could not cope. Considering the religious objects of the sect dangerous to the faith, he allowed the vengeance of the church, after much remonstrance with that peer, to fall upon lord Cobham, the leader; who was seized, condemned, and left in the Tower for execution. He, however, escaped; and assembling his partisans, plotted to take the king's person at Eltham, and to put him and his other persecutors to the sword. Henry, removing to Westminster, was followed by the main body of conspirators; but in the night he came upon them unawares, captured them, and soon after sentenced them to death. Cobham himself was a few miles behind his friends when the king came upon them, and accordingly escaped for that time; but he was, four years afterwards, taken and executed.

When the commons had proposed to Henry to seize the church-revenues for supplies, he saw the chance of filling his treasury by means much better suited to his ambitious projects. Charles VI. of France, now weakened by his frequent attacks of melancholy, was harassed by the attempts of the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy to depose him, each for his own advancement; and Henry, adopting the cause of the king, crossed to the continent with 30,000 men, and took Harfleur. The unusual heat of the autumn-season bringing illness into his army, he retreated towards Calais, with the intention of

delaying his attack on the capital till the spring. On reaching Blangy, however, he was surprised to see an army of 60,000 Frenchmen drawn up to arrest his progress in the adjoining plains of Agincourt. Sickness had reduced Henry's troops to 15,000 : but, resolved to die rather than capitulate, he drew up his diminished force on a narrow ground between two woods, and having reminded his men that Crecy and Poitiers had been won under like disadvantages, patiently awaited the enemy's assault. The impetuous valour of the French nobles, and a vain confidence in their superior numbers, added to the excellent position of Henry, shortly decided in favour of the English. The French, assaulted on every side by the arrows and battle-axes of their opponents, gave way in all directions ; and the ground whereon they were drawn up being slippery from the previous rains, they constantly fell, and became an easy sacrifice. The loss of the French army exceeded 10,000 killed and wounded, and 14,000 prisoners ; while that of the English was barely 100 in both. D'Albert, general-in-chief, fell in the action ; and the dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were made prisoners. The duke of York was slain on the English side, to the regret of no one.

Henry returned to England with his prisoners, instead of pursuing his advantages ; a course constantly adopted in those times, when the poverty of princes was proverbial, and parliamentary supplies were offered with a sluggish hand. A truce was concluded with the enemy : but, in two years, Henry was again in Normandy with 25,000 men, bent on carrying matters to the utmost. Fortress after fortress capitulated ; and on hearing of the assassination of the duke of Burgundy by the Orleans party, he hurried towards Paris. Neither party ventured to oppose him here ; and king Charles, not sorry for his arrival, entered into a treaty at Troyes, 1420, which constituted France and England an united kingdom, and acknowledged the conqueror as dauphin, with full right of succession. Henry was hereupon put in possession of Paris, espoused the princess Catherine, and proceeded to attack the duke of Orleans, who had declared himself regent of the kingdom. With an addition to his force of 24,000 fresh archers and 4000 cavalry, hastily raised by himself in a brief visit to England, he attacked the duke, and drove him southward beyond the Loire. His successes, however, were suddenly stayed. A fistula, at that time deemed an incurable affection, confined him to his bed at Rouen ; and when assured of his approaching dissolution, he said, he lamented not the loss of life, but his inability to complete the work of conquest. Having appointed the earl of Warwick guardian of his infant son, he applied himself to his devotions ; and when that passage in the Psalms was read, ' build thou the walls of Jerusalem,' he declared it to have been his intention to commence a fresh crusade in the Holy Land. While so saying, he expired, in the thirty-fourth year of his age. His body was removed to Westminster abbey, where his tomb, enclosed in a beautiful chantry-chapel, and the saddle and helmet used by him at Agincourt, are still to be seen.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Earl of Cambridge's Conspiracy to set the earl of March, the rightful heir after Richard II., upon the throne, was discovered 1416, and Cambridge, lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, were executed for the attempt. The earl of March was known to have been privy to the plot ; but as he did nothing to further it, Henry did not molest him.

The King's Poverty was shown 1416, by the pledging of his crown and jewels for 55,000*l.*

Origin of the British Navy. This was in 1420, when Henry V. arranged with the parliament that ships, exclusively for war-service, should be built. Before this time, merchant-ships were pressed for the defence of the country.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Battle of Agincourt, 1415, as in the history.

Abolition of the Second Popedom. When John XIII. had been made pope by a faction, 1410, he agreed to resign the tiara, if Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII. would do the same. Though these conditions were accepted in the council of Constance, John soon after resumed the insignia of the sovereign pontiff; but after an imprisonment of three years, he was restored to liberty, on acknowledging the election of Martin V. as sole pope, 1416: an event which put an end to the schism respecting the papal chair. As only the anti-popes, as they were called, had lately resided at Avignon, that city was no longer resorted to by the popes, although Clement VI. had purchased the city 1348, and added it to the church dominions, of which it formed a portion until the conquest of Rome by the French in 1791. Avignon has, since the last-named year, belonged to France.

The Treaty of Troyes, by which France and England were declared an united kingdom, took place 1420.

France under Charles VI., 1380 to 1422. Charles's first exploit was the perfect subjugation of Flanders, which had again revolted against its count; when d'Arteville, the rebellious brewer, was defeated and slain at Rosebecque. Having put down the Free Companies, as they were called, which, under their leaders Marcelle, and Tête Noir, ravaged Auvergne, Charles was marching against the turbulent duke of Brittany, when a *coup de soleil* occasioned him to lose his reason. The king was ever after subject to fits of deep melancholy, which damped his energies, and enabled domestic and foreign enemies to rend his kingdom in pieces.

It was then that the factions of the Armagnacs and Cabochins had their rise, 1415. Louis, duke of Orleans, chief of the Armagnacs, and John duke of Burgundy of the Cabochins, contended for the direction of French affairs: and they had no sooner agreed to cancel all animosity, than the duke of Burgundy procured the murder of his rival in the streets of Paris. Open war was hereupon declared by the young duke of Orleans against the assassins of his parent; and the poor king, seized alternately by either faction, transferred to each in turn the appearance of legal authority. Paris had become a scene of blood and violence, when Henry's power over the country compelled a cessation of hostilities: and the factions, however previously infuriated against one another, thought of nothing now but the expulsion of the invader from their soil. The two princes accordingly came to Montereau: the duke of Burgundy lodged in the castle, and the duke of Orleans in the town, which was divided from the castle by the river Yonne. The bridge between the town and castle was chosen for the interview; two high rails were placed at either end; and at gates in these the respective guards of the princes were stationed. The parties were to enter the gates, each accompanied by ten armed adherents, and with all these marks of diffidence, to conciliate their mutual friendship. The duke of Burgundy, however, had no sooner come within the rails, than some of the dauphin's retainers sprung forward and pierced him to the heart. By the treaty of Troyes, Charles acknowledged Henry V. of England heir to his crown; and the death of Henry was followed by that of Charles in two months.

EMINENT PERSONS.

John Zisca, of Bohemia, obtained his surname from having lost one of his eyes in battle; and heading the Hussites, on the death of Wenceslaus

of Bohemia (the deposed emperor), 1414, he opposed the claim of Sigismund to the throne. Though he lost his other eye at the siege of Rubi, he continued the war, and obtained so many victories, that Sigismund sent privately to offer him advantageous terms of peace. These he accepted, and was on his way to meet the emperor, when the plague carried him off, 1424. Zisca, though ranked among the reformers as the advocate of religious liberty, was a soldier more than a divine; and he seems to have modelled his conduct after the example of the leaders of the Old Testament, rather than upon the precepts of the New.

Sir Richard Whittington, lord mayor of London, served that office for the third time, 1419. He was a rich mercer, and built Newgate, began St. Bartholomew's hospital, and greatly enlarged Guildhall, all at his own cost.—*Thomas Walsingham*, a monk of St. Alban's, who published a history of England from the end of

Henry III.'s reign.—*Leonard Aretin*, the restorer of Greek in Italy. His history of the Goths, in Italian, first acquired him fame and patronage.—*Poggio*, one of the earliest restorers of literature in Italy, was letter-writer to pope John XXII. Undertaking the task of searching the monasteries for ancient manuscripts, he discovered complete copies of Quintilian, Silius Italicus, Lactantius, Vegetius, and Tertullian. Cardinal Beaufort induced him to visit England; but such was the barbarous state of the country (*horresco referens*), that he quitted it speedily for his native Florence.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire*. 1391, Manuel II. *Popes*. 1410, John XXIII.; 1417, Martin V. *Scotland*. 1390, Robert III. *France*. 1380, Charles VI.; 1422, Charles VII. the Victorious. *Sweden*. 1412, Eric XIII. *Denmark and Norway*. 1412, Eric IX. *Portugal*. 1383, John I. *Germany (or West)*. 1410, Sigismund of Luxemburg.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Island of Madeira was discovered by the Portuguese; and vines and sugar-canes were instantly planted there. The canes were not found to succeed; but the wines, raised to this

day on the island, have long since been celebrated.—*Pavement first used in London*. Holborn was the first street paved, 1417.

SECTION III.

HENRY VI., KING OF ENGLAND.

1422 TO 1471—49 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry VI. was born at Windsor, 1421, and married Margaret, daughter of René, king of Naples; by whom he had only one child, a son, the unhappy *Edward* prince of Wales, who was betrothed to Anne, daughter of the earl of Warwick, afterwards the wife of Richard III. one of her husband's murderers. This prince was killed at the age of eighteen by Edward IV. and his attendants, in cold blood, after the battle of Tewkesbury, 1471. Henry VI. was of a meek disposition, and regardless of the vicissitudes of fortune. Pious, charitable, forgiving, inoffensive, and fond of quiet, he was little suited to act the part assigned to him, especially in times when the securest attribute of kings was tyranny. The troubles of his reign were prepared by those who had conducted the government during his minority: and when he ascended the throne, his country was divided into parties of the most untractable and discordant natures. Margaret, his queen, was wholly

opposed to him in character. She was masculine, fiery, and ambitious ; and his natural passiveness looked like mental weakness, when contrasted with her restless and intriguing spirit.

Political History. Henry was but nine months old when his father died ; and as cardinal Beaufort, his great uncle, was made his guardian by the parliament, the duke of Bedford, protector of the realm, took the command of the armies in France. Upon the decease of Charles VI., his son, the dauphin, now Charles VII., roused the people to disregard the treaty of Troyes, and deliver their country from a foreign yoke. Bedford, however, defeated him with great loss at Verneuil, and afterwards besieged him in Orleans ; and the ruin of Charles was impending, when an event occurred which, as if by miracle, turned the tide of affairs in his favour. Joan d'Arc, servant-girl in an inn at Domremi, apprized of the friendly disposition of the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany towards Charles, declared herself appointed by Heaven to free her country. Armed *cap-à-pié*, mounted on horseback, and girt with the mystic sword of St. Catherine of Fierbois, she headed a convoy to supply the garrison with provisions : and, as if panic-struck, the English allowed her to enter without a blow. Nothing, after this success, seemed impossible to the maid and her enthusiastic votaries : the English were assailed in their intrenchments, and put to flight, and Charles, accompanied by the heroine, upon arriving at Rheims to invest it, saw the gates thrown open for his free ingress. He was here solemnly crowned, while Joan, who had promised this achievement before quitting Orleans, stood by his side.

Meanwhile the duke of Bedford, anxious to make a show of resistance, had sent for young Henry from England, and crowned him with great ceremony at Paris 1430 ; and in the following year Joan was given up to him by his allies, the Burgundians, as a prisoner of war. The cruel death by fire to which Bedford most unjustifiably subjected this heroic female, tended in no manner to benefit his affairs ; town after town fell to Charles, and when the duke of Burgundy went over to his side, Paris fell into his hands. The duke of Bedford dying just at this juncture, a truce was agreed to, and Calais, as before, was almost the only French station left in the power of the English.

Henry, now twenty-three years of age, married Margaret of Anjou, and began to find ample employment at home. The suspicious and intriguing disposition of this princess is supposed to have caused the death of the duke of Gloucester, on the plea of having united with his duchess to poison the king ; as that nobleman, who was emphatically styled good, for his general benevolence, was found murdered in his bed at Edmondsbury, while the absurd charge was in agitation. Henry would willingly have sifted the matter, but for the attempt upon his throne made at the same period by Richard, duke of York, who, as the descendant of the duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III. plainly stood in the order of succession before the king, who derived from that monarch's third son. A large portion of the nation, which still retained its affection for the ancient line of Plantagenet, espoused the cause of Richard ; and the populace, glad of an opportunity to gain during the existence of civil commotion, were soon in arms for the house of York, one Jack Cade, an Irishman, entering London at their head, and summarily putting to death lord Say, the treasurer, and Cromer, sheriff of Kent. Though Cade was driven out by the citizens, his place was supplied by the duke of York himself, at the head of 10,000 men, who declared himself protector of the realm. The duke of Somerset, who headed the army of Henry, met the insurgents at St. Alban's, 1455, but fell in this opening battle of what has been fancifully denominated the war of the roses.

The peers, urged by queen Margaret's mandates rather than entreaties, now

flocked around the king, and insisted upon a reconciliation with Richard ; and although a hollow species of treaty was the consequence, the parties were soon in arms again, and the king made prisoner by his rival, at the battle of Northampton, 1460. Margaret, however, soon appeared with an army, levied in the north, to dispute the claim of Richard ; and killing him in a battle at Wakefield, fixed his head on the gates of York, with a paper crown, in derision of his pretended title. Advancing to meet the earl of Warwick, she defeated him also at St. Alban's, and recovered the king's person ; after which, on hearing that Edward, the son of the duke of York, was in arms, she retreated to recruit her forces towards the north. Prince Edward directly entered London, and boldly offered himself to the citizens as their lawful king ; whereupon a number of peers and bishops declared at Baynard's castle, that the people assented. Historians consider that this act terminated the reign of Henry VI., March 4, 1461 : but as this arrangement is liable to the objection that the king's deposition was a mere party matter, he being afterwards recognised by the parliament as the rightful monarch, we shall not close his reign until his death, in 1471.

Queen Margaret was, without much delay, at the head of full 60,000 men in Yorkshire ; when the earl of Warwick and prince Edward coming up, defeated her with immense loss, though herself and the king made their escape to the court of James III. of Scotland. Louis XI. of France having soon after supplied the intrepid queen with 2000 well-appointed soldiers, she ventured to attack lord Montague, the brother of Warwick, at Hexham ; but the king fell into the earl's hands, and she, in her attempt to escape with her son, was seized by a band of robbers, who despoiled her of her jewels, but enabled her to reach the sea-coast, and embark for France in safety. The hapless Henry was conveyed a prisoner to the Tower, and Edward might have securely enjoyed the throne, but for his subsequent quarrel with Warwick. While that nobleman was in Paris, soliciting for Edward the hand of the queen of France's sister, Bona, Edward formed a contract of marriage with the widow of Sir John Gray ; and Warwick, enraged at having been sent on so needless an errand, leagued with the king's brother, the duke of Clarence (his own son-in-law), to dethrone him. History at this point is extremely defective ; as, after this, in 1470, Warwick is found assisting Edward to suppress two formidable rebellions ; and then again, without any assigned reason, he is seen landing in England, and at the head of 60,000 men, occasioning the flight of Edward to Holland. Warwick now hastening to London, released the king, proclaimed him once more with great solemnity, and the parliament ratified the deed, 1470.

Edward, however, early in the next year landed at Ravenspur with some Burgundian soldiers ; and strange to say, marched into London without opposition. Warwick, now generally styled *the king-maker*, supported by Clarence and Montagu, met him at Barnet ; but Clarence deserting to his brother, Warwick was slain, and his army entirely routed. Queen Margaret on that very day landed at Weymouth, only to hear that her cause was lost, and her husband again a captive. Nothing, however, could daunt this heroic woman : she advanced full of hope, her army increasing as she proceeded, until she came to Tewkesbury : and there she took her stand. Edward, with his victorious troops, here attacked her, put her to the rout, and taking many prisoners of rank, beheaded them without mercy. The queen herself and her son were also captured ; and the latter, when asked by Edward ' why he had invaded his dominions ? ' replied, ' that he did so to obtain his inheritance ; ' whereon, Edward first striking him violently on the face, Clarence, Gloucester, and others despatched him with their daggers. Margaret was confined in

the Tower, and king Henry expired in that fortress a few days after, 1471, aged forty-nine, not without suspicion of having been murdered by Gloucester. His remains were interred at Chertsey abbey, Surrey, but were afterwards removed by Henry VIII. to the choir of the royal chapel at Windsor; where there is still some memorial of this ill-fated monarch.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

A great Dearth in England 1437, when ivy-berries and fern-roots were the chief ingredients in a sort of bread. So ill-conducted were agricultural matters, and so ignorant were farmers of cropping their grounds in succession with the various edible roots and grasses, that a famine usually occurred every few years, without either bad seasons, or civil commotions.

The Rebellion of Jack Cade, 1450. When his followers had been dispersed, he hid himself in the garden of Mr. Iden, a Kentish gentleman, who found him, and put him to death with a pole-axe.

The Wars of the Roses began with

the battle of St. Alban's, 1455; and were so called from the York party wearing the symbol of a white rose, and the Lancastrian a damask rose.

Rising Power of the Commons.

This branch of the legislative first acquired real power during the reign of the Lancastrian kings, who, glad of popular support, would not exert their prerogative, partly to gain favour with the lower ranks, and partly because they wished no inquiry into their right to the throne. In fact, these kings united with the commons against the peers; and thus destroyed that balance of authority so essential to both king and people.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Rise of the Abencerrages. Yussuf III., a wise and valiant prince, dying 1423, was succeeded on the throne of Granada by his son Mohammed VII. called the left-handed; who followed the example and advice of his father in maintaining friendly relations with the Christian court of Castile, and with the Arab princes of North Africa. The discontent which soon manifested itself on these grounds against the youthful king, was kept in check by his chamberlain, Yussuf ben Zerragh, the chief of a wealthy and noble family, which from him obtained the title of A-ben-zer-raghes. But in 1427, an open revolt, incited by the king's cousin Al Zaghir, broke out, the Alhambra was invested by the conspirators, and Mohammed being compelled to fly, escaped in the garb of a fisherman to the court of Mulei ben Fariz, at Fez. Meanwhile the faithful Zerragh used his utmost efforts to restore his master; and by means of John II. of Castile, and the king of Tunis, he succeeded in his enterprise,

and put the usurper Al Zaghir to death.

Origin of the Gipsies. This wandering race first appeared in Bohemia, 1422, and were thence called Bohemians. It is now clearly ascertained that their origin is Hindu; that Mahratta is their country, and that their ancestors were of certain low castes, that left Hindustan upon its conquest by the Monguls. Emigrations continued, long after, of such characters as had been driven from different castes for great crimes; and these, herding together, wandered over the east, under the appellation of *zinguri*, the name by which the Turks and Italians still distinguish the gipsies, of whom many are still to be seen in Mahratta, in tribes. The name of gipsy, or Egyptian, originated in the long residence of a tribe in Egypt, just previously to their appearance in Europe. The language of this singular race is a mixture of corrupted Hindustanee.

Germany no longer an Elective Kingdom. Frederick, duke of Aus-

tria, was elected emperor of the west, 1440; from which period his descendants have retained the throne; though the title, since 1806, has been restricted to the Austrian dominions. Thus was the house of Rodolph of Hapsburg raised to permanent power.

An Irruption of the Sea, 1446, at Dort, in Holland, caused the death of 100,000 persons.

Full of the Eastern Empire. The Turks under Mahomet II. took Constantinople, 1453, and thus put an end to that last remnant of ancient Rome, the Greco-Latin empire. The schism between the Greek and Latin churches had produced a general indifference in the western empire to the fate of Constantinople. Nevertheless a vigorous defence was made by the emperor, Constantine Paleologus, who fell sword in hand, and was buried amid the ruins of his country; and the barbaric descendant of Tartars seated himself on the throne of the Cæsars, 1500 years after the battle of Pharsalia. Great changes were necessarily effected by this settlement of the most powerful of the Moslem nations in an European city. The philosophers and poets of the eastern empire were driven out, to encourage the revival of learning in the western; the Venetians, who had long hoped to see themselves in possession of a country whose chief towns they had already filled with artisans and traders, were compelled to retire within their ancient boundaries; the Greek and other islands of the Mediterranean, though hitherto independent of the continents of both Europe and Asia, were compelled to obey Turkish viceroys; and Germany and Hungary saw their possessions in Walachia, Bosnia, and Illyria, down to the confines of Italy, converted with incredible speed into Turkish provinces.

Scotland under James I. and II.—*James I.*, after a captivity of eighteen years, was released by Henry in the first year of his reign; and the mode in which he commenced his rule convinces us of the important fact, that

the school of adversity is, in the main, the nurse of benevolent feelings, if not of virtue. The Scots were barbarous in the extreme when James ascended the throne: he appointed judges to administer justice, ordered just weights and measures, encouraged learned men, endowed public schools, and reclaimed the idle and vagrant to habits of useful industry. A conspiracy, however, of some peers, who were unprepared for these salutary reforms, put an end to the glorious career of the monarch. Robert Graham, a kinsman of the earl of Athol, and Robert, the earl's grandson, having ascertained that James was passing a few days at the convent of Dominicans in Perth, 1437, procured admittance by bribery into an apartment adjoining the king's bedchamber, whence they rushed in upon him whilst with the queen at supper, and despatched him with twenty-eight wounds. The queen was also severely hurt, in endeavouring to defend him. On hearing of this crime, the more loyal nobles assembled, apprehended the conspirators, and put them to death by torture.—*James II.* was but seven when crowned at Holyrood, 1437; and his minority was only distinguished by the violent factions of Livingston, the regent, and Crichton, the chancellor, both of whom were, in process of time, by the instrumentality of William, earl of Douglas, banished the kingdom. Douglas, however, was guilty of great violence and injustice, when raised to power; and James, when twenty years old, put him to death with his own hand, for refusing to break his league with two other intriguing nobles. Henry VI., notwithstanding his war with the duke of York, sent a force to drive James from the northern counties, which he had invaded; and the latter was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, then occupied by the English, when the wooden plug of a cannon struck him, on the sudden explosion of the piece, and killed him on the spot, 1460. On the day of his death, the

queen arrived in the camp, and showing the soldiers her son James, then in his seventh year, exhorted them to continue the siege in the presence of the new king she had brought them; when the garrison, hearing the acclamations of the Scottish army, and supposing that fresh troops had joined their assailants, surrendered.

France under Charles VII. and Louis XI.—Charles VII., son of the unfortunate Charles VI., was enabled, by the enthusiasm of Joan d'Arc, to recover all his lost possessions from the English. When in full possession of his throne, he put down the encroachments of the independent princes of France, by causing every town to raise its quota of troops for the defence of the kingdom. By this means he abolished the feudal privilege, so long enjoyed by the peers, of raising their tenantry to fight: troops which were too often employed against the king himself. The ill-conduct of Louis, the dauphin, compelled his father to exile him to Dauphiny; and when at length reconciled to that rebellious prince, his dread of being poisoned by him made him refuse all food. An atrophy was the consequence of this fear, which brought him to the grave, in his 58th year, 1461. It was this king who, for Agnes Sorel, his mistress, abandoned the cares of government, and neglected his queen. Had Agnes preserved her virtue, she might have equalled the most celebrated of her sex; it was by her advice that Charles was roused to save his country by the defence of Orleans, and it was she who encouraged him to be guided by Joan of Arc.—*Louis XI.*, the Tiberius of France, who had been so instrumental to his father's decease, succeeded him 1461. The main feature of his reign is his quarrel with Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, a generous and intrepid prince, wholly opposed in character to Louis, and whose territory was at that time independent of France. The king went with a few attendants to the duke's castle at Peronne, to overreach him,

rather than effect a treaty on equal terms; but had previously sent emissaries to Liege, which belonged to Charles, to excite the people of that town against their bishop and government, not calculating that the explosion might take place while he was at Peronne. When intelligence was brought to Charles that the Liegeois had murdered their bishop, he immediately caused Louis to be imprisoned, assured that he must have instigated the revolt. Charles, believing himself deeply aggrieved, was yet fully aware that he had been guilty of a breach of honour, in imprisoning a man who had come unprotected into his power, on the understanding that their meeting was to be a peaceful one; and after three days of doubt, he took the advice of his friend Comines, the historian, and released his captive. Far different was the state of things during those three days in the apartment of Louis. Galeotti, his astrologer, without whose advice he never acted, and who had sanctioned his journey to Peronne, being there shut up with his master, was compelled to listen from hour to hour to the taunts of the king, who placed his present calamity entirely to his account. At length, on one occasion, bursting with rage, Louis vehemently asked him, 'if he were wise enough to foretel the hour of his own death?' 'Sire,' replied the dexterous astrologer with calmness, 'I only know that it will take place exactly twenty-four hours before your own;' an answer which made Louis ever after take the greatest care of Galeotti's safety: On his return from Peronne, cardinal La Balue, whom the king suspected of inciting the duke to imprison him, was shut up by his orders, like Bajazet, in an iron cage. Upon the death of Charles, at the siege of Nanci, 1477, Louis added Burgundy to his dominions: and he was soon after left heir to Provence and Anjou by duke René. But all his successes could not shield him in the close of life from the terrors of a guilty conscience; and he died in his fortified

castle of Plessis, near Tours, surrounded, as he imagined, by the pale spectres of those he had hurried to the grave, 1483. Some notion may be formed of the habitual cruelty of Louis from the following narration: Being aware of the unpopularity of his own character, he constantly kept about him a hireling assassin, named Tristan l'Hermite, who was prompt to despatch at his master's beck any one suspected of a design upon the royal person; and when a captain, towards whom Louis entertained an unkindly feeling, was one day present at his levee, he gave the appointed signal for the soldier's destruction. Tristan, who unfortunately for a monk then in the presence-chamber, mistook him for the intended victim, watched the ecclesiastic in his passage from the palace, seized him, and threw him, sewn up in a sack, into the river. On reporting to the king the execution of his orders, 'Pasque,' cried Louis, coolly, 'you have indeed made a mistake, and killed the best monk in my dominions; but take care six masses be said for his soul.'

Controversy of the Platonists and Peripatetics. Gemistus, of Constantinople, having introduced the Platonic doctrines into Italy, 1438, with a view to subvert the metaphysics of Aristotle, two violent parties arose, the respective disciples of which long occupied the learned world with their controversy respecting the nature of the Deity,

spirits, the soul and mind of man, matter, &c. Plato's doctrine was of the devotional and even mystical species, and there exists amongst a large body of mankind a strong constitutional sympathy with its spirit and tendency; on the other hand, Aristotle, under the title of metaphysics, which he calls the first philosophy, endeavours to apply the reasoning faculties to subjects beyond their grasp. In treating of ontology, or the doctrine of being, he speaks of a first cause or mover, that by the exertion of its energy originates motion, and is perpetually and necessarily occupied in doing so. Aristotle's fame during the middle ages must be ascribed to his dialectics, which furnished such admirable weapons of attack and defence in the disputes, consequent upon the attempts of controversialists, to subject mere points of faith to the strict rules of reason. All we can say of spirits and spiritual things, as respects our acquaintance with their mode of existence and operation, diminishes to the humbling affirmation that we know of them, if it be possible, less than nothing. Men are perhaps wiser in our day than to entertain such unproductive speculations; and this may be said, without in any way detracting from the merits of either Plato or Aristotle, men who were, without doubt, an honour to human nature, and a blessing to the people amongst whom they lived.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Joan of Arc, one of the most remarkable heroines in history, born of poor parents at Domremi, in Lorraine, became servant at a small inn, where she acquired a robust and hardy frame, by attending to the horses, and riding them backwards and forwards to water. At this time the affairs of France were in a deplorable state, and the city of Orleans was so closely besieged by the duke of Bedford, that its fall seemed inevitable. Excited by the frequent accounts of memorable rencounters of this siege, Joan was

seized with a wild desire of aiding the harassed garrison: at length she fancied she saw visions, and heard voices exhorting her to re-establish the throne of France, and expel the English invaders. Having communicated this imaginary inspiration to the governor of Vaucouleurs, he forwarded her to Charles at Chinon, to whom, in the name of the Supreme Being, she offered to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct the king to Rheims. The court at first pretended to hesitate; but after a committee of divines had pronounced

her mission to be supernatural, Charles granted her request, and she was exhibited to the people on horseback. The English at first regarded the affair with derision, but gradually gave way to the superstitious notions of the age, and became daunted with the idea of a divine vengeance hanging over them. Joan entered the city of Orleans at the head of a convoy, arrayed in military garb; and being received as a celestial messenger by the commandant Dunois, she drove the English furiously from their intrenchments, and compelled them to raise the siege. The march of Charles to Rheims followed; and such was the impression produced on the populace, that, although proceeding through what had been deemed an enemy's country, every place opened its gates to him, and the ceremony of his inauguration took place as predicted. As a mark of gratitude for this service, the king had a medal struck in honour of Joan, and her family was ennobled in both the male and female line; of which the former became extinct so lately as 1760. The town of Domremi, her native place, was also exempted from taxes for ever. After the coronation of Charles, Joan desired to return to the course of life which became her sex; but Dunois, who thought she might still prove serviceable, induced her to throw herself into the town of Compeigne, then besieged by the duke of Burgundy, and the earls of Arundel and Suffolk. Here, after performing prodigies of valour, she was taken prisoner in a sally; and no efforts being made by the French court to deliver her, she was cruelly condemned by the English, under an accusation of witchcraft, to be burned alive, which sentence she endured with great courage 1431, being then in the nineteenth year of her age. Such was the sad end of one whose ardent love of country assuredly merited a better fate; and of whose memory the French nation have just reason to be proud.

Margaret of Anjou, the heroic though masculine consort of the unhappy Henry, whom no calamity could

subdue, was ransomed by her father after her husband's death, and passed the remainder of her days in privacy in France. She died 1482, and was buried in the cathedral of Angers, in the tomb of her father.

Cardinal Beaufort, great-uncle of Henry VI. and legitimated son of John of Gaunt, was a man of great talent and policy, but wholly regardless of justice and mercy. Sir Joshua Reynolds, in painting his death, has represented him passing from the world with all the horrors of a guilty conscience; in especial allusion to his share in the murder of the good duke of Gloucester.

Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, so basely murdered, was celebrated for his hospitality and general worth. Indeed he was a singular instance of probity, urbanity, and learning, associated in the character of a prince who lived in barbarous times, in days of civil commotion, and at a period of our history when the domestic virtues were little cultivated. The duke was a patron of learned men, and founded one of the first public libraries in England. *To dine with duke Humphrey* was formerly a common figure of speech to denote not having dined at all. It arose from the vulgar error respecting a tomb in one of the aisles of old St. Paul's church, which was mistaken for that of the good duke. The aisle in question was a public walk, where people met to discourse of business, as merchants do now on Change; and it not unfrequently happened that some, engrossed in conversation, out-stayed the dinner-hour, so that, all the dinners at the ordinaries having been eaten up by the earlier visitors, the disappointed parties were said 'to have dined with duke Humphrey in Powle's walk.'

Thomas-à-Kempis, being attached to a contemplative life, entered the monastery of St. Agnes, in Zwoll, of which he became prior 1423. Here he spent the remainder of a long life in the assiduous practice of the prescribed duties of the cloister, and in the composition of devotional treatises; one of which,

on the 'Imitation of Christ,' has been deservedly translated into all languages.

Scanderbeg, king of Albania, near the Adriatic, a state then tributary to Turkey, but professing Christianity, had been given up as a hostage, together with his three brothers, to Amurath II., emperor of the Turks. Being appointed to the command of a body of Turkish troops, he employed them to recover his paternal dominions, bid defiance to Amurath, and was declared, after many conflicts, an independent sovereign. This heroic prince, who had been present in twenty-two battles, and is said to have killed 2000 Turks with his own hand, died 1467, to the great joy of the emperor Mahomet II., who paid the compliment to his valour of dancing with ecstasy when he received the news of his decease.

Casimir IV., king of Poland, constituted the Latin tongue the language of his nation. Latin, as supposed to have been pronounced by the ancient Romans, is still spoken in districts of the same country.

Francis Foscari, doge of Venice, greatly enlarged his dominions by the conquest of Brescia, and other territories; but the Venetians, always anxious about money, lamented the cost to which their state had been put, and deposed their ruler, who died two days after his deposition, 1457, aged eighty-four.

Pius II. was raised to the papacy in reward of his diplomatic services to the emperor Frederick. His firmness and dignity in office were proverbial: he expelled tyrants, supported the election of judicious princes, and established the temporal power of Rome over the Christian world.

Cardinal Bessarion, a Greek, and one of the most eminent restorers of literature, was appointed patriarch of Constantinople. By the error of his attendant, Perot, he lost the papal chair: for when the cardinals, according to custom, knocked at his door to announce his election, Perot ignorantly affirmed his master's *nolo episcopari* to be conscientious; a mistake for which Bessarion thus mildly rebuked him: 'Perot, thy mistake has cost thee a hat, and thy master a tiara.' While employed in an embassy by Sixtus IV. to reconcile Louis XI. and the duke of Burgundy, he was sufficiently ignorant of the forms of society to call upon the duke before paying his devoirs to the king; and when Louis insulted him for his negligence by pulling his beard, he took the matter so to heart, that he died at Turin, on his way home.

Prince Henry of Portugal, one of the greatest patrons of maritime enterprise, originated many of those discoveries of remote countries which so materially tended to raise the fame of his country. He died 1463.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Art of Printing invented in Germany, about 1440.—This noble art, which speedily dissolved the darkness of THE MIDDLE AGES, is indebted, some think, to the East for its invention: probably in allusion to the engraved tablets used to this day in China, which have been ascribed to an earlier period even than the commencement of the Christian era. The discovery of the European mode of printing is claimed by three continental cities, Haarlem, Mentz, and Strasburg. The good people of

Haarlem (who seem to have gained most credit) assert, on the authority of one Junius, that Laurentius, the son of the Custos of the cathedral in that city, is the man we are to consider as the spring and source of the great art. He relates that Laurentius, about 1430, walking in a wood near Haarlem, began at first to cut letters upon the rind of a beech-tree; which, for fancy's sake, being impressed on paper, he printed one or two lines, as a specimen for his grandchildren to follow. This having happily succeeded, he meditated greater things, and with his son-in-law, Peter, in-

vented a more glutinous writing-ink than that heretofore used, and then formed whole pages of wood, and cut letters upon them. Junius says, he had seen (1588) some specimens of the printing by these blocks, in a work entitled, *Speculum nostræ Salutis*, printed only on one side of the paper, with the backs of the leaves pasted together, that they might not by their nakedness betray their deformity. These beechen pages or tables he afterwards exchanged for leaden ones, and these again for a mixture of tin and lead, as a less flexible, and a more durable substance; of the remains of which types, when the letters were worn away, those old wine-pots were cast, which are to this hour preserved in a house at Haarlem that belonged to the great-grandson of Laurentius, a man of great respectability. The art was soon generally talked of, admirers increased, and the inventor found himself able to employ a great number of hands in the first display of his discovery. Among the workmen he engaged, was one John Faust, who, notwithstanding he was bound by oath not to reveal the secret, had no sooner learned the method of joining the letters, and casting the types, than, on Christmas-eve, 1439, he seized the whole *materiel* of his master's shop, and with one accomplice fled to Amsterdam, thence to Cologne, and at last settled at Mentz. Here he remained in security, and, with his purloined tools, printed the 'Doctrinale' of Alexander Galius, and the 'Tracts' of Peter of Spain. Laurentius had now, instead of cutting into the tablets, cast the letters by themselves, and placed them, by means of ligatures, on the page. Some historians assert that these letters were always of wood. A workman named Geinsfleisch, also stole some of the type and settled at Mentz, which accounts for the claim of that city: he was assisted there by one Fust, a wealthy person, who together with John Meidenbachius, had a share in the business; and in 1444 they were

joined by Gutenberg from Strasburg, who had gained all his information from Laurentius's men; thus at once showing that his city had no claim to originality. This party soon invented the cut metal types, and in 1450 the first edition of the Bible came forth, having been nearly eight years in the completion. Soon after, Peter Schæffer rendered the art comparatively perfect, by finding out a mode of casting the letters in moulds or matrices, thus saving the labour of cutting them out of the solid metal; for which discovery Fust gave him his daughter in marriage. All the parties connected with these printers were sworn to secrecy; but the sacking of Mentz, like the confusion of tongues at Babel, spread the art over the whole continent. The first book printed with the improved type was 'Durandi Rationale,' in 1459: at which time, however, it seems they had only *cast* letters of a certain size, the larger ones being *cut*. Vellum, too, was more printed on than paper at first; but about 1470 the latter came into general use. From this period, the art made a rapid progress in the principal towns of Europe. In 1490, it reached Constantinople; and by the middle of the next century, it had extended to Africa and America. About 1560, it was introduced into Russia, where it was, for political purposes, speedily suppressed; and even now may be considered but in its cradle.

With respect to England, it was a constant opinion, delivered down by our historians, that the art of printing was first practised by William Caxton, a mercer and citizen of London, who, by his travels, informed himself of the process, and established a press soon after 1471; but a book has been discovered, bearing the date of 1468, printed at Oxford, and now deposited in the public library at Cambridge, which has robbed Caxton of a glory he had long possessed; and Oxford has ever since carried the honour of the first press. It appears, from an ancient record in Lambeth

palace, that Henry VI. sent Mr. Tournour, his master of the robes, with Mr. Caxton, to Haarlem, to induce one of Gutenberg's men secretly to come to England: one Corsellis was at length bribed, and conveyed from Holland forthwith to Oxford, where a military guard was put over him, that he might not effect his escape before he had fulfilled his agreement. So that printing began at Oxford; and this before there was either press or printer in France, Spain, Italy, or Germany, save in the city of Mentz. The king then set up a press at St. Alban's, and another at Westminster, his majesty himself having the emoluments arising from all the books in the kingdom printed. In the latter press, it seems, Mr. Caxton was engaged. Before 1465, the uniform character was the old Gothic or German, whence our *Black Letter* was formed; but in that year an edition of Lactantius was published in a kind of semi-gothic, of great elegance for that day, and approaching nearly to the present ROMAN type; which last was first used at Rome in 1467. Towards 1500, Aldus invented the *Italic* character, but especially distinguished himself by the beauty of his Greek works; for, previously to his time, it was a common practice to mix up all such English letters with the type, as were similar to the characters of that language. From this period, up to the close of the last century, printing has gradually improved, especially in France and this country; but England bears the palm at the present moment; and the labours of M. König, a German, aided by the improvements of Mr. Applegarth and Mr. Dryden, to effect printing by machinery, have combined rapidity of execution with accuracy in so remarkable a manner, that little further ingenuity appears necessary for the final perfection of the art.

The first Lord Mayor's Show took

place in London 1453.—*Glass Manufactures* introduced into England.—*Glasgow University founded* 1450. The lord rector of this learned body is annually chosen; and of late years it has been customary to elect to that distinguished office persons celebrated for their political as well as scholastic talents, of either Scotland or England; insomuch that the political bias of Scotland is usually gathered from the tenets of the lord rector of Glasgow.—*The Vatican Library founded* at Rome.—*Pawnbrokers first allowed* in England, 1457, to lend money to distressed persons, on depositing their goods as a security for repayment with interest.—*Eton College founded*, near Windsor, by Henry VI., to give gratuitous education to a certain number of youths, now augmented to seventy: he also erected King's college, Cambridge, for the purpose of receiving as fellows, and wholly maintaining, a portion of the scholars so educated.—*The Cape de Verde and Azore Islands discovered* by the Portuguese.

SOVEREIGNS. *Eastern Empire*. 1391, Manuel II.; 1425, John VI. Paleologus; 1448, Constantine XII. Paleologus; 1435, Fall of the Eastern Empire of the Romans to the Turks. *Turkish Sultans*. 1453, Mahomet II. *Popes*. 1417, Martin V.; 1431, Eugene IV.; 1439, Felix V.; 1447, Nicholas V.; 1455, Calixtus III.; 1458, Pius II.; 1464, Paul II.; 1471, Sixtus IV. *Scotland*. 1390, Robert III.; 1424, James I.; 1437, James II.; 1460, James III. *France*. 1422, Charles VII.; 1461, Louis XI. *Denmark and Norway*. 1412, Eric IX.; 1440, Christopher III.; 1448, Christian I.; 1464, Charles Knutson; 1465, Christian I. restored. *Portugal*. 1383, John; 1433, Edward; 1438, Alphonso V. *Germany (or West)*. 1410, Sigismund; 1438, Albert II., the grave, of Austria; 1440, Frederick IV.

PERIOD THE FOURTEENTH.

The House of York.

1471 TO 1485—14 YEARS.

SECTION I.

EDWARD IV., KING OF ENGLAND.

1471 TO 1483—12 YEARS.

Personal History. Edward IV. was a prince of fine person and insinuating address. He was born at Rouen, 1443. Louis XI., after his interview with him at Pecquigni, owned that his beauty was irresistible. He was endowed with fortitude, penetration, and sagacity; but a more vindictive and merciless man never lived. Few in his high station have made so light of promises, or been so prone to break treaties; and it was the unceasing, though fruitless labour, of his paramour, the unhappy Shore, to reform him in these particulars. His queen was Elizabeth, daughter of Richard Woodville, and widow of Sir John Gray of Groby: and he was the first king since the conquest who had married a subject. By Elizabeth he had ten children, amongst whom were *Elizabeth*, who eventually married Henry VII.; *Edward V.*, and *Richard*, duke of York.

Political History. Edward found himself without a rival after the death of Henry; and following the bent of his disposition, entered upon a course of pleasure which at first gained him much popularity. The jovial festivity of his court served to divert the public mind from a contemplation of the miseries of the previous reign; and men were commonly heard to rejoice at the downfall of a family, which had not only harassed the country with civil commotions, but had given that strength to the lower estate of parliament, which, while liberty was so ill-understood, operated on the nation as an insupportable tyranny. Seized on a sudden with the desire of making French conquests, Edward hastened to join Charles the Bold in his attack upon Louis XI. The duke, however, had changed his design when Edward landed on the continent; upon which the latter, not to have his preparations fruitless, laid claim to France, by virtue of the treaty of Troyes. Louis, affecting to listen to his appeal, granted him an interview at Pecquigny, on a bridge across which a close rail had been drawn, with no larger interval than would allow the arm to pass; and with his usual policy, brought over to his interest all the men of influence in his rival's suite, and put an end at once to his pretensions.

It was in 1478 that a domestic occurrence placed the character of Edward in its true and most degrading light. Happening in a hunting excursion to kill the favourite buck of a gentleman named Burdet, that person, in the heat of his resentment, observed 'that he wished the horns of the deer in the belly of the man who had advised the king to that insult.' When a tale-bearer related this speech to the king, he most cruelly ordered Burdet to be seized, and after a mock trial, executed; and when the duke of Clarence, Edward's own brother, protested against his conduct in the affair, he commanded him also to be arrested, obtained his condemnation in like manner, and gave him only the choice of his death. The duke, whimsically desiring to be drowned in a butt

of malmsey, his favourite beverage, the sentence was carried into effect in the Tower without delay, 1478.

This tyrannical and cruel prince was preparing a fresh invasion of France, in consequence of the dauphin's refusal of his daughter's hand, when he was seized with an ague, which put an end to his life 1483, in the forty-first year of his age. He was buried in St. George's chapel, Windsor, which he had greatly embellished: and his tomb is yet to be seen, having on a black marble slab the words, 'Edward IV. and his queen Elizabeth Woodville.' An aperture was discovered in the side of the vault by some workmen, 1789; and upon its being enlarged by order of the canons, the skeleton of Edward was found in a leaden coffin, enclosed in one of wood.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

King Edward's tyrannical Spirit. A tradesman was reported to have said he would make his son heir to the crown, alluding to the sign of his house; and Edward construing this into a design to dethrone him, put the man to death. Signs were then com-

monly used by the tradesmen of London, and were by no means the exclusive appendage of taverns.

Two Plagues, by which thousands died in a short time, visited England, 1472 and 1478.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Expulsion of the Monguls from Russia. When John Basilovitz was czar of the Russes, Novogorod, the city in and around which the Tartar tribes had settled, was regained by his brave generals, 1477, and their troops forced back into Tartary. No less than 300 cart-loads of gold and silver, and other valuable effects, became the prize of the Russians on this occasion.

The Union of Castile and Arragon was effected 1479, by the marriage of Ferdinand, prince of Arragon, with Isabella, sister of Henry IV. of Cas-

tile, whom his people had deposed, to bestow the throne upon her. Ferdinand and Isabella were persons of great prudence, and mainly contributed by their wise ordinances to consolidate the power of Spain, which from this period owned but one government,—Navarre being rather a province of France than an independent territory. They held separate courts, notwithstanding the marriage; and carried on the affairs of their respective states, without interfering with each other.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Jane Shore, the mistress of Edward IV., was, notwithstanding her degradation, a woman of many virtues. She employed her money in assisting the needy; and turned her influence over the king to the advantage of the deserving. Her efforts to soften the character of Edward were unremitting, though fruitless. After the king's death, she suffered every indignity and neglect; and is said to have expired in the streets of that city, through which she had often passed in all the splendour of a queen.

William Caxton, who, if not the

first English printer, has the renown of establishing the first authorized press in Westminster Abbey, 1471.

Regiomontanus, a German astronomer, who settled at Nuremberg, and having assisted pope Sixtus IV. to reform the calendar, was made archbishop of Ratisbon; but died of the plague at Rome, when only forty, 1476. His mechanical skill was such, that he constructed a wooden eagle and an iron fly, of whose performances wondrous tales are told. They belonged, after his death, to the emperor Maximilian; the former would

fly from the city, when he was riding beyond its boundaries, turn upon meeting him, and fly back with him to his palace; and the latter, being let loose from his hand, would flutter round the apartment several times, and then return to his hand again.

Theodore Gaza, a restorer of Greek literature in Italy, who left Constan-

tinople on the entrance of the Turks, and was patronized by Cardinal Bessarion; *Trapezuntius*, also a Greek exile, who supported the peripatetic doctrines against the Platonists with great zeal; *Guarino*, an Italian, who passed a long life in translating the Greek authors into Latin, and was the discoverer of the poems of Catullus.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Title of Most Christian Majesty was given by the pope to Louis XI., because he repealed the ordinance of his predecessor, Charles VII. (called the pragmatic sanction of Bourges), which had abolished the pope's right to first-fruits (the first year's revenue of a benefice), and to church appointments. The French kings have ever since retained the title. The Spanish sovereign has been, on some like occasion, dignified with the title of *Catholic*; and the Portuguese king with that of *Most Faith-*

ful.—*Aberdeen University founded, 1477*.—*The Coast of Guinea discovered by the Portuguese, 1482*.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1453, Mahomet II.; 1481, Bajazet II. *Popes*. 1471, Sixtus IV. *Scotland*. 1460, James III. *France*. 1461, Louis XI.; 1483, Charles VIII. *Denmark and Norway*. 1465, Christian I. restored; 1481, John I., who also ruled Sweden. *Portugal*. 1438, Alphonso V.; 1481, John II. *Germany*. 1440, Frederick IV.

SECTION II.

EDWARD V., KING OF ENGLAND.

1483.

Personal History. Edward V. was born in 1470, and was thirteen when his father died. He was nominal king little more than a month, from April to the beginning of June, 1483. He is said to have been a fine youth; and the manner in which he remonstrated with his uncle Gloucester, when he so abruptly tore him from the guardianship of his mother's brother, lord Rivers, proves that he was by no means deficient in manly spirit.

Political History. The people, during the latter years of Edward IV., content with an immunity from the actual dangers of civil war, had little concerned themselves with court proceedings; and only united in the hope that they might never hear more of the distinctions of York and Lancaster. Amongst the governing party, however, had existed strong hostility, arising from the rivalry of the queen's party and the ancient nobility. The earl of Rivers and the marquis of Dorset, the brother and son of the queen, headed the one party; and the duke of Buckingham, whose influence, alliances, and good birth gave him vast weight, led the other, seconded by Lord Hastings. The duke of Gloucester, who had been appointed protector during the minority of his nephew, secretly supported the ancient peers; and no sooner was his brother dead, than he resolved on possessing himself of the person of young Edward, then residing with his maternal uncle, lord Rivers, in Wales. Rivers, suspecting danger, applied to the parliament for a guard of soldiers to escort his pupil to London, preparatory to his coronation: and Gloucester and his

partisans, who had vehemently opposed the project in the house, met the suite of Rivers on its way to the metropolis, and seized the young monarch at Stony-Stratford. Rivers was hurried off with several of his friends to Pomfret, and beheaded, on a charge of treason; and little Edward was carried by his relentless relative to the Tower, in vain remonstrating against so cruel and unjust a separation. The queen, in alarm, fled to the sanctuary of Westminster with her other son, the duke of York: but being forced to give him up, she, with the most awful presages of his fate, bid him an eternal farewell.

Gloucester now boldly proposed to Buckingham to set aside his nephew's claim to the crown, on the ground of illegitimacy: he even went so far as to raise proofs that both Edward IV. and the duke of Clarence were born out of wedlock. Buckingham, induced by great offers, promised his assistance; but lord Hastings was not accessible by such means. The protector hereupon called a council in the Tower, at which Hastings and other lords attended; and having left the chamber for a few minutes, returned, as if disturbed by some sudden ill news from without, exclaiming 'that he had been bewitched, and asking what punishment they ought to receive who had been guilty of plotting the destruction of the lord protector of the realm?' He then bared his arm, all shrivelled and decayed, an infirmity which many present were aware had attended him from his birth, and repeating his question, was answered by lord Hastings 'that if any one had been wicked enough to work such an evil, he ought to be severely punished.' 'Do you answer me with ifs and ands?' exclaimed Gloucester in a rage: 'you my lord, and Shore, are the main instruments in the plot; and, by St. Paul, I will not dine before your head be brought me!' He struck the table, and armed men rushing in, seized the unhappy nobleman, and decapitated him on the first block of wood they found in the court below. Shore was allowed to escape with her life; but her goods were confiscated, and she was compelled to walk through the public streets in penance, clad in a sheet, and holding a taper, to St. Paul's, there to confess her crimes.

The ulterior designs of the protector were now unmasked. One Dr. Shaw, his creature, called on the congregation from the pulpit, in his presence, to make the duke of Gloucester their king; and this not succeeding, Shaw's brother, who happened to be mayor, called a council of the citizens, that the duke of Buckingham might propound the same question in the common hall. With the utmost difficulty, a cry was raised of 'God save king Richard!' amongst the retainers of the duke, who hereupon declared Gloucester unanimously elected by the citizens. Richard affected to revolt at first at so strange a proceeding; but at length he assented with feigned reluctance, and was proclaimed at Westminster without further delay. In a few days after this farcical proceeding, a tragedy of the deepest die was acted. Orders were given, it is said by Richard, to the governor of the Tower, Sir Robert Brackenbury, to put the sons of Edward IV. to death in any way he conceived best: but as the knight refused to perform so heinous a deed, Sir James Tyrrel was appointed to the task. With three associates, Slater, Dighton, and Forest, this infamous man smothered the two innocent youths as they lay asleep in their bed. Their bodies were directly buried at the foot of the narrow staircase leading to their apartments; and it was not until the reign of Charles II. that their bones were discovered, and honoured with a marble tomb.

SECTION III.

RICHARD III., KING OF ENGLAND.

1483 TO 1485—2 YEARS.

Personal History. Richard III. was born 1453, at Fotheringay castle, being the eighth child of Richard, duke of York, and brother of Edward IV. He married Anne, widow of the son of Henry VI., and had issue only Edward, prince of Wales, who died a year before his father. Richard was of the middle height, of a severe expression of countenance, and had one shoulder rather higher than the other. He was not crook-backed, as has been affirmed. He had a sound judgment, a natural fund of eloquence, the most acute penetration, and an invincible degree of courage. But his whole history shows that he was inclined to keep by blood what by blood he had acquired.

Political History. Richard's primary objects on mounting the throne were to secure new friends by bestowing great favours, and to attach old ones by rewarding them in full proportion to their deserts. The duke of Buckingham, whose family had lost a large portion of his estates by an escheat to the crown, had them restored to him, and was made lord high constable; and others were, in like manner, raised to wealth and office. But as Buckingham was, immediately after these grants, engaged in a conspiracy against Richard, it is presumed that some demand was still ungranted, or some fancied right denied. The earl of Richmond, heir to the crown after the king's own family, had been an object of jealousy to Edward IV.; insomuch that he had sent him in honourable custody to the duke of Brittany, who, on the usurpation of Gloucester, gave him his liberty. Richard, with his usual penetration, discovered that Buckingham was the leader of a party resolved on raising Richmond to the throne; but when he summoned him to his presence to charge him with the offence, the duke appeared in arms in Wales. Before he could muster his adherents, the troops of Richard surprised him, brought him prisoner to Salisbury, and beheaded him.

Hoping to put an end to the pretensions of Richmond, the king resolved on marrying Elizabeth, eldest daughter of his late brother king Edward, the undoubted heir of the house of York; but when Richmond, who was of the Lancaster family, and had determined on the same project, heard of the resolution of Richard, he hastily put to sea with 2000 men, landed at Milford-Haven, 1485, and, with a force augmented to 6000, continued his march until met at Bosworth near Lancaster by the king, with an army of 13,000 men. Nothing could be more skilful than the arrangements of Richard: and had not lord Stanley, one of his generals, deserted at the onset with at least 7000 men to the enemy, the contest would most probably have been decided in his favour.

Despair, however, inspired the king with a double portion of courage; and leading on his main body in person, he every where sought his rival. The body-guard of the earl, perceiving his intention, fiercely attacked him with a view to surround him; but for nearly an hour he kept them at bay, slaying three of them with his own hand, and severely wounding others. At length the numbers of his assailants prevailed; and, fighting to the last moment with a fury which awed all around him, he fell. Four thousand of his troops were slain or made prisoners, and the rest fled. The duke of Norfolk and Sir Robert Brackenbury were amongst the killed; and Sir William Catesby, a great instrument of Richard's crimes, was carried captive to Leicester, and beheaded. The king's body was found covered with his slaughtered enemies: and being thrown care-

lessly across a horse, was carried to Leicester, and buried in the Grey Friars' church; but no memorial of that fact is now to be found.

Richard was thirty-two years old when he died; a far less aged man than we are accustomed to consider him, when we attempt to gather his character from Shakspeare, who represents him rather as the hoary villain, than the youthful and reckless adventurer. The battle of Bosworth closed the thirty-years' war of the Roses, wherein more than 100,000 Englishmen lost their lives in civil contention.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The last of the Plantagenets. Richard III. left a natural son; and on the night preceding the battle of Bosworth, the king sent for him to his tent, and told him that, should he prove a conqueror on the morrow, he would obtain an act of legitimacy in his favour. This youth, after his father's fall, gained his livelihood in the lowly employ of a bricklayer; and Sir Thomas Moyle, of Eastwell-place in Kent, eventually presented him with a piece of ground, whereon he built himself a house with his own hands, and in which he died aged eighty-one, 1550. Mr. Heseltine, in his talented romance, 'The Last of the Plantagenets,' has recorded all that has been known to historians of this individual's life.

Post-horses first used. The word *post*, as implying speed, is derived from the old Latin expression, *equis positus cursor*; which implied a runner whose horses were in readiness; and letters were first conveyed in England by persons who rode stated distances for gain, 1483. The post-chaise is comparatively a modern luxury, and is an improvement on the ancient post-cart, with two wheels, and a single horse, whereon the guide rode. It is worthy of observation that, as respects our four-horse coaches, or stages, in the present day, an estimate has been made with great labour of the wear of iron in a journey of one hundred miles. The calculation is made from the diminution of the horseshoe, and the waste of the tire of each wheel, sixteen shoes, and four tires; and it is found that twelve pounds weight of iron is deposited on the road. This is uniformly the case on all roads

not having railways. The roads in England and Wales extend now over 25,000 miles, the cost of making which has been seven millions, and the cost of annual repairs, 1,300,000*l.*

England under the Lancaster and York Families. Notwithstanding the war of the Roses, when every occupation but that of arms was abandoned by the majority, literature was not wholly neglected. The poets Gower and Chaucer contributed to give a character to our language; many colleges were founded to promote education; architecture, especially in the Gothic style, was encouraged; the very important art of Printing had its rise; and the foundation of the Protestant faith was laid by the followers of Wickliffe. Music and painting were quietly practised by the clergy; and the art of staining glass for churches was brought to perfection. The science of war was materially affected by the more common use of projectile instruments; but the cannons of this early period were too cumbrous for easy conveyance; while the stone balls used in them were an uncertain, and often, to the party employing them, a dangerous species of missile. All disputes respecting the succession being at an end soon after the death of Richard III., a rapid advance both in religious information and general knowledge began amongst the English people; and the middle ages, with all their darkness and barbarism, being now closed by a combination of events, a new era commenced with the accession of the Tudor family to the throne.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

The Reign of James III. of Scotland. It was in the minority of this prince, who succeeded his father James II. 1460, that the unfortunate Henry VI. fled to his court, and was hospitably received by James Kennedy, archbishop of St. Andrew's, who surpassed all his contemporaries in authority and prudence. The whole reign of James was occupied by his oppression of, and contests with, his nobles; and when at length he had secretly solicited succours from France and England, a party of the peers pursued him to the castle of Stirling, and in a hasty engagement, slew him, 1488. The example of neighbouring kings contributed not a little to the corruption and ruin of James, who had early given specimens of an enlightened mind; as Edward IV. and Richard III. of England, Louis XI. of France, and John II. of Portugal, all laid the foundation of tyranny in their respective states.

EMINENT PERSON.

Bellino, a painter of Venice, visited Constantinople, and painted, by order of Mohammed II., the death of John the Baptist. The sultan, to prove to the artist that the neck of the saint was too long and too prominent in one part after decollation, called a slave to him, and cut off his head with a blow of his sabre. Bellino, completely convinced of his error, not only owned himself wrong, but made all possible haste to get out of the Turkish dominions.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey.* 1481, Bajazet II. *Popes.* 1471, Sixtus IV.; 1484, Innocent VIII. *Scotland.* 1460, James III. *France.* 1483, Charles VIII. *Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.* 1481, John I. *Portugal.* 1481, John II. *Germany.* 1440, Frederick IV.

MODERN HISTORY.

PERIOD THE FIFTEENTH.

The House of Tudor.

1485 TO 1603—118 YEARS.

SECTION I.

HENRY VII., KING OF ENGLAND.

1485 TO 1509—24 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry VII., son of Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, was born at Pembroke 1457, and was in person tall, slender, and well-shaped; of a grave aspect, and saturnine complexion. He inherited a natural fund of sagacity, which study and experience materially improved; and was remarkable for coolness and presence of mind, when surrounded by difficulty and danger. His leading vice was avarice: yet was he a wise legislator, temperate in habits, and attentive to religious duties. His master-passions were the fear of deposition, and the love of wealth. Urged by the former, he put the earl of Warwick to death, lest he should avail himself of his superior claim to the crown; and actuated by the latter, numerous indeed were the mean and unjust actions of which he was guilty. In entering upon a war, he always stipulated with his allies that they should bear the cost, or obtained a larger subsidy than was needful from the parliament, or a tax from his people. His ministers, Empson and Dudley, were noted for their ingenuity in raising supplies: not an offence, real or alleged, but was compensated by a fine. Personally on one occasion, Henry, after having enjoyed the splendid hospitality of the earl of Oxford, accused his noble host of keeping more servants, in the shape of retainers, than the law allowed, and scrupled not to fine him accordingly 15,000 marks.

Something like remorse for these tyrannical modes of raising money, seized him at the close of life; and he ordered large sums to be distributed amongst the poor, hospitals to be founded, and restitution to be made wherever wrong had been done. Henry married Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., by whom he had seven children, of whom the survivors were, *Margaret*, married first James IV. king of Scotland, then Archibald earl of Angus, and thirdly lord Methvin; *Arthur*, who married Katherine of Arragon, daughter of Ferdinand II. of Spain, but soon after died; and *Henry VIII.*

Political History. 'Long live king Henry the seventh!' resounded from all parts of the battle-field, when it was found that Richard had fallen. Whether Richmond's claim were defective or not was not now questioned, and the earl, adopting the high distinction so spontaneously awarded him, proceeded by

easy marches to London, which he entered in a close coach, to the surprise and disappointment of the crowds awaiting his arrival. He was crowned in a few days after (being in his 29th year), and in the next year espoused the princess Elizabeth, to the great satisfaction of the nation. Henry, however, was of a jealous temper; and loving his own family of Lancaster better than his wife's, the Yorkists, he regarded this joy of the people as a proof of their preference for the rival house, and was never very cordial with the queen.

Henry's first proceeding was a progress through the kingdom, wherein he awed many insurgent parties, and executed Sir Humphrey Stafford, a factious leader; and he had scarcely reached London on his return, when he received intelligence of an insurrection in Ireland, under one calling himself earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence who had been drowned in the Tower. The king had no difficulty in proving the Irish claimant a cheat; but he sent the queen-dowager, who was supposed to have aided in the trick, to the nunnery of Bermondsey, and seized her lands and revenue. When the impostor landed in Lancashire with an army of German veterans, supplied by Margaret, widow of Charles the Bold, Henry met him at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, and having routed his forces, took him prisoner. The pretended earl was a baker's son, named Lambert Simnel, whom a priest of Oxford, one Simon, had tutored to undertake the task of deception. Simon, being in holy orders, was imprisoned for life, instead of being summarily put to death: and Simnel, who was found to be a weak-minded youth, was made a scullion, and afterwards a falconer, in the royal service. To divert the nation from the question of his title, Henry, having allowed the queen to be solemnly crowned, sent troops under lord Brooke to assist the duke of Brittany (at whose court he had been brought up), in his contest with Charles of France; but when the dispute had been terminated by the marriage of Charles with the young duchess, he landed at Calais with 30,000 men, and claimed the crown of France as his hereditary right. Charles was weak enough to purchase the independence of his kingdom for 40,000*l.* of our present money, and a yearly pension of 25,000 crowns; and Henry, having thus satisfied his avarice, speedily withdrew his troops.

A new domestic calamity befel the king in 1492. The duchess of Burgundy, who had warmly supported the imposture of Simnel, publicly stated her conviction that her nephew, the duke of York (the prince murdered with his brother Edward V.) was still alive; and secretly thereupon sent Perkin, the son of Warbec, a renegade Jew, into Ireland, who was received as the true Richard Plantagenet by the unanimous voice of the credulous people of that island. When Henry soon after saw the king of France give colour to this second imposture, by entertaining young Warbec at Paris, and the duchess of Burgundy by honouring him with the romantic title of her *white rose*, he made Tyrrel and Dighton, who had been present at the murder of the princes, prove that fact to the world; and executed Sir William Stanley, as being the chief English agent in the plot. He also forced James IV. of Scotland to drive the impostor from his court, where he had married the king's relative, lady Catherine Gordon, and headed a Scottish irruption into Northumberland; and when at length the pretender appeared in arms in Cornwall, with the title of Richard IV., he came upon him while laying siege to Exeter, seized him at Beaulieu, and conducted him in mock triumph to London, where, after being some time imprisoned in the Tower, he was executed 1498, for planning the escape of himself and the earl of Warwick.

Henry's remaining days were spent in endeavours to marry his daughters well, in conferences with Ferdinand of Spain respecting the alliance of the prince of Wales with that monarch's house, and in the suppression of rebel-

lions against his authority; in one of which Sir James Tyrrel, the infamous director of the Tower murders, fell a sacrifice. Henry died of consumption at his favourite palace of Richmond, after a reign of twenty-three years, in the fifty-third year of his age; and his remains were deposited in the beautiful chapel he had built in Westminster-abbey; where his tomb is yet to be seen, surrounded by a magnificent screen of basaltic stone.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Two Plagues occurred in this reign; the one the *sweating-sickness*, 1485, wherein persons died through exhaustion, by extreme perspiration, and which, though it lasted but a month, carried off 20,000 persons in London. The other was a plague like those of the east, 1500, and it proved fatal to 30,000 in London.

Three Rebellions happened in this reign; those of Lambert Simnel and Warbec have been described; the third occurred at Bodmin in Cornwall, where Flammoek, a lawyer, and Joseph, a farrier, incited the populace to oppose the tax levied by Henry, when the Scots made an irruption into Northumberland with Perkin. They even marched towards London with 16,000 men; but were both captured at Deptford, and executed.

Origin of Standing Armies. It had been long the practice of the wealthy to provide liveries and badges for occasional servants, on whom their employers could call for support in their feuds and insurrections. As

brawls, both private and public, were grievously increased under this system, and as moreover an army could easily be raised from such characters, to the injury of the king's peace, Henry not only laboured to abolish retainers, but made his first attempt at raising a paid standing army 1486, instituting the yeomen of the guard, a corps of fifty soldiers, whose duty it was to attend upon the royal person. As the troop also waited on the king at meals, giving forth the dishes from the buffet or sideboard, its members received the name of *buffetiers*, now corrupted into *beef-eaters*, whose habit is still to be seen in the dress of the warders at the respective fortresses of the kingdom.

Death of the Earl of Warwick. This last legitimate male heir of the house of York and Plantagenet, after a detention of fifteen years in the Tower by the jealous Henry, was executed on the ground of having planned his escape with Warbec, for treasonable purposes, 1499.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Murder of the Abencerrages. Boabdil, the last king of Granada, had deposed his father Muley Hacem in 1481; and though attacked and made prisoner on that account by Ferdinand of Castile, was allowed to reign, on acknowledging himself a vassal of the conqueror. The Moorish state, however, was on the brink of ruin by intestine commotions; and especially by the rivalry of the two potent families of the Zegrís and Abencerrages. It was in 1491, when the army had returned unsuccessful from the siege of Jaen, that the Zegrís, then high in the favour of Boabdil, conspired to prove that failure the work of the Abencerrages,

whose chief, Albin Hamet, they solemnly declared, not only aspired to the throne, but had become the secret paramour of the queen. The fury of Boabdil may easily be imagined by those acquainted with the Moorish character; and he swore the instant annihilation of the whole race of Ben Zerragh. Ordering thirty of his guards to arm themselves, and the executioner to attend, he took his seat in the hall of lions of the Alhambra; and summoning the Abencerrages, as on occasions of council, contrived that they should enter the apartment one by one. As each unsuspecting victim passed the portal, he was seized and

beheaded; and no less than thirty-five were sacrificed in this manner, before intelligence was obtained without of the tragedy which was enacting within. All the Abencerrages would thus have died but for a little page, who, following his master closely, was admitted unperceived, during the confusion that prevailed amongst the guards in the vestibule. Appalled on perceiving the floor of the hall strewn with mangled corpses, he fled with precipitancy, and cried out to the first of his master's house whom he met, 'You are betrayed!' In an incredibly brief space of time, 14,000 men were in arms at the gates of the palace, to avenge the death of men so generally beloved by the citizens; and a party of Abencerrages rushed into the hall of lions, and though Boabdil escaped, put to death more than 200 of his adherents, in and about the Alhambra. Muley Hacem was again declared king, but resigned in favour of his son, on hearing that he had made his peace with the house of Ben Zerragh. Boabdil, however, had determined on the death of the queen; but she was advised, on the day appointed for her execution, to commit her cause to some Christian knights, who at tilt and tournament defeated her false accusers, and obtained her liberty. The fall of Granada speedily followed this combat, the Abencerrages giving every facility to the hostile movements of Ferdinand.

Extinction of the Kingdom of Granada. Ferdinand of Castile drove the Moors from their last stronghold of Granada 1492; after their residence in the peninsula 780 years. Boabdil, the last king, on being compelled by his conqueror to retire to Alpuxares, a small domain allotted him for his future abode, turned round to take a last view of his beloved capital from a neighbouring hill. His whole family accompanied him: and, bursting into tears, he sank on the ground, overwhelmed with grief at the recollection of what he had lost. 'My son!' said his mother Aixa, 'you have cause indeed

to weep like a woman, who defended not your throne either as a monarch or a man!' The unhappy prince, quitting his beloved Spain soon after for Africa, fell in battle there on the side of the king of Fez.—The Moors bewail to this day their expulsion from Granada. Each evening in their prayers do they supplicate heaven to restore them possession of a country, connected in their fervid imaginations with all that is romantic, heroic, and glorious in their annals. Their last ambassador from the wilds of Africa, begged permission of the Spanish king to set his foot in the palace of the Alhambra; and his pathetic lamentation when he entered its deserted walls, has furnished the theme of many a modern poet's lay. Mr. Lockhart, in his Spanish ballads, has most touchingly portrayed the deep feeling of the swarthy race on ordinary occasions of mourning; while Mr. Washington Irving, with that classic elegance observable in his productions, has accumulated, in his recent visit to the Alhambra, a fund of matter highly interesting to every investigator of Spanish history. When Granada fell, an offer was made of free citizenship to all such Moors and Jews as would embrace Christianity; few, however, accepted the proposal, and 170,000 families quitted Spain for ever. This extensive expatriation depopulated Spain of artists and labourers; and the contemporaneous discovery of America not only aggravated the evil, but brought upon the remaining Spaniards, by the influx of wealth, the deplorable indolence which still characterizes the people of the peninsula.

Origin of the Moravians. The Hussites having split into various parties, some again joined the Roman church; but others, forming themselves into a fraternity, and maintaining the protestant faith, as we now term it, though with much mysticism and peculiarity, adopted the title of Moravian Brethren, from the marquise of Moravia, wherein they resided.

League of Cambray, a treaty between the pope, emperor of Germany,

and king of France, 1508, to crush the Venetian power. Although the oligarchy maintained its ground, its decline commenced just at this juncture, from the discovery of a passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. The greater portion of Indian goods imported into Europe had hitherto passed through the hands of the Venetians, by way of Alexandria; but the overland transit ceased when ship-carriage was found practicable.

France under Charles VIII. and Louis XII. Charles, called *l'Affable*, succeeded his father Louis XI., 1483, and his minority was admirably superintended by Anne, lady of Beaujeu, his elder sister. By his marriage with the heiress of Brittany, he rendered Maximilian of Austria (to whom she had been affianced), Henry VII. of England, and Ferdinand of Spain, his enemies; and was obliged to part with much money and several provinces, to avert their anger. Incited by Ludovico Sforza, duke of Milan, Charles expelled Alfonso and his son Ferdinand from the throne of Naples: the bravery of Gonsalva de Cordova, however, and of his Spanish troops, restored Ferdinand; and the French monarch soon after died, aged only twenty-eight, 1498.—*Louis XII.* (*le père de son peuple*) the kinsman of Charles, divorced his wife Jeanne, to marry the widow of his predecessor, Anne of Brittany, the first queen of France that formed a female court. He deprived Sforza of Milan, and joined with Ferdinand of Spain in dethroning Ferdinand of Naples; but the Spanish general, Gonsalva, having claimed a larger portion of the conquered terri-

tory for his master than Louis thought correct, a contest ensued between the allies, and Gonsalva obtained the whole. From that period to the present, the throne of Naples has been more or less supplied by members of the Spanish royal house. Pope Julius II. succeeded soon after in driving the French out of Italy, with the loss of their brave general, Gaston de Foix, who fell at the battle of Ravenna. Louis married lastly Mary, sister of Henry VIII. of England. He died 1515.

Scotland under James IV. James IV. succeeded his father James III. It was in 1508 that Stephen Bull, a courageous English captain, undertook to seize Wood the Scottish admiral, who had made prizes of five British ships, sent to ravage the shores about the Frith of Forth; Wood, however, captured Bull in a very severe battle, and presented him to his sovereign, who immediately ordered his dismissal, and received the thanks of Henry VII. for his generous conduct. James, after withdrawing his aid from Perkin, the impostor, married Margaret, the daughter of king Henry, and in commemoration of an event which he thought would unite the two countries for ever, gave a series of splendid entertainments, built palaces, and fitted out large ships, to a degree that seriously trencched upon his finances. On the accession of Henry VIII. he declared war against England, on account of the incursions of the English borderers; and meeting the forces of his brother-in-law at Flodden, fell in a battle there, together with the flower of his nobility, 1513. Lord Howard and the earl of Surrey were the chief leaders of the English.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Columbus (or Colon), son of a wool-comber of Genoa, displayed an early taste for navigation; and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain having given him their support, he made three voyages, and discovered the West India islands and the American continent. As admiral of the Spanish fleets, he con-

tinued his researches, though often regarded by the captains of the age with jealousy, so that he was once sent home in irons, on the plea that he was about to make himself sovereign of the newly found world. Ferdinand, however, liberated him, and honoured him with a magnificent funeral at

Seville, where this brief epitaph still records his merits: 'To Castile and Leon Colon gave a new world.'

Gonsalva de Cordova, called the Great Captain, was general of Ferdinand and Isabella in the conquest of Granada, and in the war of Naples. Like Columbus, he was accused of entertaining ambitious designs; and died in retirement at Granada, 1515. Gonsalva derives a species of immortality from having been, for more than an age, the hero of romance.

Ximenes, the talented minister of Ferdinand and Isabella, was the judicious reformer of the Spanish church. Pope Julius II. made him a cardinal, and Ferdinand, on his deathbed, appointed him guardian of the state during the minority of his son; a high office, which he discharged with honour, in despite of popular clamour.

Albuquerque, who established the Portuguese power in India, 1503, by founding a colony at Cochin; and in a second voyage, he made the whole coast of Malabar tributary to his country. He was as humane as he was brave; but, like Gonsalva and Columbus, became suspected of ambitious projects, and lost the favour of his sovereign.

Vasco di Gama, a Portuguese, famous for his discovery of the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, 1497. Under John III. he was made viceroy of India; and, in a third voyage, fixed the seat of government at Cochin. Camoens, for his many virtues, has given him immortality in his 'Lusiad.'

Lorenzo de Medici was made chief,

and called the Father of the Florentine republic, by the gratitude of the people, after the assassination of Julian, his brother. He was a patron of the learned of all nations, a just arbitrator in the violent disputes amongst the princes of his time, and an excellent poet, though far from being either a moral or a religious man. His son John became pope, with the title of Leo X.

Ferdinand the Catholic was son of John II. of Arragon, and by his marriage with Isabella of Castile, 1474, united those two rising Spanish kingdoms, still preserving their separate courts. Ferdinand sanctioned the institution of the Holy Brotherhood, a self-elected body, which had long raised troops in the various districts for the protection of travellers and the pursuit of criminals. Its soldiers carried before its own judges offenders of every description, who, without regard to the jurisdiction of the lord of the place (generally the abettor of the culprit), were tried and condemned. To induce the Jews and Moors to embrace Christianity, this politic prince established the Inquisition; and by the conquest of Granada, annihilated the Moorish power in Spain. His general, Gonsalva de Cordova, brought under his rule a large portion of the Neapolitan dominions; while the discovery of America opened to him and his successors, the sovereignty of a new hemisphere. Ferdinand dying, 1516, was succeeded by his grandson, afterwards the western emperor, Charles V. *Fox*, bishop of Exeter, who founded Corpus Christi college, Oxford.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Star-chamber was remodelled 1487, by Henry VII. It was a court of ancient origin, and consisted of certain lay and spiritual lords, and two judges of the courts of common law, who had power together to decide upon the punishment due to riots, perjuries, and misbehaviour of sheriffs, and at length, to grant monopolies, to issue proclamations at variance with

the laws of the land, and to fine, imprison, and corporally punish, such as questioned their proceedings: all without a jury. The oppression occasioned by so absolute a tribunal, caused its abolition, to the great joy of the nation, by Charles I. The court derived its name from the *Shtarrs* (Hebrew, *she-tar*, covenant), or ancient contracts concerning money and privileges, be-

tween the Jews and English kings; these having been kept in a part of the building where it was held.

Reform of Municipal Corporations. These self-elected bodies of men, which rule all matters in the respective cities of the kingdom, and, with a mayor at their head, form a sort of *imperium in imperio*, were restrained in their powers by Henry; so that no by-laws could be passed by them, without the consent of three chief officers of state. It is evident that independent municipal bodies are beneficial; and that any course, which would tend to destroy or even diminish their utility, would be reprehensible. The internal quiet of this country has for centuries been attributable to the admirable working of these institutions. Forming a middle security between toil and wealth, the poorest artisan may become, by a long course of industry and good conduct, the chief magistrate of his native city; and chosen, as he must have been, by those who were judges of his worth, he will possess the confidence and respect of its inhabitants. Should the ruling party in the state, that is the government, be constituted the sole receptacle of municipal authority, the great consequent evils to be feared would be popular elections, and the probable advancement of men unqualified by general worth to hold the posts of honour.

Discovery of Countries took place to

an extraordinary degree in this reign, under the peninsular sovereigns. Columbus explored the coast of *America generally*, 1492; *South America* was marked out by Americus Vesputius, 1497; and Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol, marked out *North America*. The Portuguese at the same time found out the *passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope*, and the islands of *Madagascar, Ceylon*, and *St. Helena*. Wealth soon flowed from so many sources into the peninsula; and it became at length the grand emporium of precious stones and metals.—*A Coinage of Shillings* first took place in England.—*Gardening* introduced into England from the Netherlands, 1509; previously to which almost all vegetables were imported from the Low Countries.—*Chiaroscuro* invented, by which, in painting, light and shade are used in a way to give the greatest relief to figures on a plain surface.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1481, Bajazet II. *Popes*. 1484, Innocent VIII.; 1492, Alexander VI.; 1503, Pius III. and Julius II. *Scotland*. 1460, James III.; 1488, James IV. *France*. 1483, Charles VIII.; 1498, Louis XII. *Sweden, Denmark*, and *Norway*. 1481, John I. *Portugal*. 1481, John II.; 1495, Emanuel. *Spain*. 1474, Ferdinand the Catholic and Isabella. *Germany*. 1440, Frederick IV.; 1493, Maximilian I.

SECTION II.

HENRY VIII., KING OF ENGLAND.

1509 TO 1547—38 YEARS.

Personal History. Henry VIII. was born at Greenwich 1491, in the palace built by Edward I., to which Humphrey, the good duke of Gloucester, added a park, and substantial walls. He was of a good figure, and commanding aspect; but imperious rather than dignified in carriage. He excelled in all the exercises of youth; but though educated with far greater care than his predecessors, was deficient in the grace and urbanity that usually result from early cultivation of the mind. In his general character he displayed impetuosity, arrogance, and pedantry, delighted in pomp and pageantry, and gratified his passions at the expense of justice and humanity. From the abject compliance

of his court, he acquired almost despotic authority over both peers and people ; and became at length so cruel as to make bloodshed his pastime. He married six wives ; 1. Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand of Spain, and widow of his brother Arthur, whom he divorced, and by whom he had *Mary I.* ; 2. Anne, daughter of Thomas Boleyn, earl of Wiltshire, whom he beheaded, and by whom he had *queen Elizabeth* ; 3. Jane Seymour, sister of Somerset, the protector, by whom he had *Edward VI.*, and who died after the birth of her son ; 4. Anne, daughter of John, duke of Cleve, whom he divorced ; 5. Katherine, granddaughter of John Howard, duke of Norfolk, whom he beheaded ; and 6. Katherine, daughter of Sir Thomas Parr, who survived her tyrannical husband.

Political History. No prince could succeed to a throne under happier circumstances than Henry, possessing an undisputed title, a full treasury, and a kingdom flourishing in the bosom of peace. He began by establishing a council, consisting of his father's ablest ministers ; and put to death as traitors Empson and Dudley, whose extortion had deservedly excited popular odium. His turn for magnificence soon dissipated the hoards of his parent ; and his openness and vanity made him the easy dupe of foreign artifice. Instigated by pope Julius II. to attack Louis XII., his only rewards were the trifling success of his troops at the battle of *the Spurs* (so called from the flight of the French at Guinegate, wherein spurs were more used than swords), and the taking of Tournay.

But while Henry was thus wasting time in France, his general, the earl of Surrey, obtained the important victory of Flodden over the Scots, 1513. And here it should be observed that the Scots, from the time of our second Henry, had been in constant alliance with the French ; insomuch that whole regiments of that people were to be found in the armies of the latter, and no war could commence between England and France, without an immediate invasion of Northumberland by the Scots.

The career of Wolsey, however, is the most striking feature of this reign, productive as it was of the most important consequences to the kingdom. This talented man, whose father had been a butcher, had been rapidly elevated by Henry to the highest honours in church and state ; and neither the king of France, the emperor of Germany, nor the king of England, appear to have proceeded with any great measure, in their respective states, without his advice and interference. The pope made him a cardinal, and the emperor promised him the popedom. At his solicitation, Henry crossed over to Calais to hold a conference with Francis I., for the purpose of cementing an eternal amity between the nations, 1520. The field whereon they met was ever after called ' the field of the cloth of gold,' as well it might ; for very many of the English nobles were ruined by their extravagant expenditure amid the tilts and tournaments, the spectacles and feasts, which consumed day after day.

But however disposed the mind of Henry might be to court foreign alliances, and extend his dominions, a matter of domestic interest interfered to turn the current of his thoughts. His plan of education had made him a great casuist ; and, delighted at the thought of entering into the religious disputes then raging in Germany, he wrote boldly in defence of the Romish church against Luther, and was rewarded by pope Leo X. with the title of defender of the faith. While engaged in this controversy, however, something occurred to make him consider his union with his brother's widow an unlawful act. As Clement VII. entered into Henry's scruples, Wolsey was employed to debate the matter with other casuists ; but when, after considerable delay, the king's inability to procure a divorce was declared, the royal ire fell upon the cardinal, who was accused of leaguings with the pope, deprived of his offices, and threatened with an impeachment. His death of a broken heart put an end to his calamities

soon after; and Henry, in despite of papal injunctions, married Anne Boleyn 1532, after his separation by archbishop Cranmer from Catherine. Clement's excommunication of Henry having closely followed this proceeding, the infuriated king at once broke with Rome, and declared himself supreme head of the church in England.

This began *the Reformation*; but the monarch still adhered to the Roman catholic faith; and while persecuting even to death such excellent characters as bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More, for denying his supremacy, he not only displayed a rooted aversion to the Lutherans, but brought a great many of them to the stake for heresy. The rupture of Henry, therefore, with Rome, affected only church-government in temporal matters; and what we understand by the term reformation, referring as it does to the change of religion from catholic to protestant, is by no means applicable to the schism which he originated. To his son Edward, and the counsellors of that prince, belongs the full meed of praise for the glorious labour of laying the foundation of the English church; the superstructure of which was the meritorious work of Elizabeth.

As Henry advanced in years, his temper grew more stern; and his reign was at length that of a despot, who sacrificed without scruple every obstacle of his capricious will. As the monks and friars were necessarily the most direct advocates of papal authority, he suppressed the monasteries; and seizing their revenues, divided them between the crown and his courtiers, giving small pensions to the abbots; he also ordered the Scriptures to be translated into English, though the gentry alone were permitted to read them. Tiring of his wife, Anne Boleyn, he listened to the reports of her indiscreet conduct in petty matters, and after sacrificing several who had been noticed by her, brought her also to the scaffold 1536. On the day after her execution, he espoused Jane Seymour. The utmost rigour was, at this juncture, exercised by him towards the remaining catholic institutions. Stories were by royal authority propagated respecting the detestable lives of the friars; the reliques of the monasteries were exposed to public ridicule; and the shrine of Thomas-à-Becket, which had been an object of reverence for centuries, was pillaged by command, the bones of the saint burned, and the ashes scattered to the winds.

As queen Jane died soon after giving birth to a son, Henry took for his fourth wife the sister of the duke of Cleves; but immediately after the marriage, he accused the earl of Essex of treason for having proposed the match, put him to death, divorced his consort, and married Catherine Howard. As the Howard family was inimical to protestantism, the most determined persecution of the protestants followed; and crowds were daily brought to the axe, of such as had been only *supposed* to deny the king's supremacy. It was no uncommon thing now to see a rigid catholic and a firm protestant tied together, and so brought to execution, for the one great offence: even the aged countess of Salisbury, the mother of cardinal Pole, and the only relique of the Plantagenets, was on this account put to death. Charges of infidelity were soon after brought against Catherine Howard; and she was summarily beheaded, 1542, and her uncle, the duke of Norfolk, and his son, the accomplished earl of Surrey, who had so distinguished himself at Flodden, were sent to the Tower. In the same year, Henry sent a force northwards, which put the Scots to flight near Solway, and, without a blow, made many of their nobles prisoners; a disaster which caused king James to die of grief for his dishonour. In 1543, Henry married his sixth and last wife, Katherine Parr. In 1544 he crossed over to Calais with 30,000 men, and took Boulogne: but nothing of greater moment was effected, and in 1546 peace was made both with France and Scotland.

The king began now to feel his health decline: he had become immensely

corpulent, and so extremely irritable, that no one either of his court or family dared to thwart him in any way. It was at this juncture that he put to death the earl of Surrey, for having quartered the royal arms with his own coat-armour; and he expressed a hope that he might not himself die before he had brought that nobleman's father also, the duke of Norfolk, to the scaffold. His end, however, approached so rapidly, that he could not carry his blood-thirsty design into execution; and Sir Anthony Denny, after much hesitation, took the resolution of assuring him he had not long to live. Sending for archbishop Cranmer, the king had barely strength to press his hand, in token of dying in the Romish faith. His disorder was dropsy; and he had long dabbled in medical recipes, with the hope of curing himself, unaided by physicians. He was buried at Windsor, in a vault near the altar in St. George's chapel, near his queen Jane. His age was fifty-six.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

England freed from Papal Supremacy. The king's supremacy in ecclesiastical matters, and the consequent abolition of papal power in England, effected by king Henry, 1531. Thus was at least the foundation laid of the Reformation in England.

Two great sicknesses prevailed: the one a sweating disorder, wherein the sufferer died in less than twelve hours, 1517; and the other a diarrhoea, occasioned by heat of weather, 1542. The Thames at the latter date was so shallow, that the sea flowed up to London bridge.

Suppression of the Monasteries, 1536; when 10,000 English friars and nuns were driven from their places of seclusion, and left, in a majority of instances, without the means of support.

Lands let, of the best kinds, in England, for one shilling per acre, 1544.

The Oxford Disputes. Wolsey having founded the first chair in this university for teaching Greek, the students divided themselves into Greeks and Trojans; and sometimes fought with as great animosity as did those hostile nations. The catholics favoured one mode of pronouncing the language, and the protestants the other: and bishop Gardiner employed the autho-

rity of the king and council to decide the matter. The result was in favour of the catholic, or ancient mode.

Death of Anne Boleyn, 1536. On the morning of her execution, she sent for Kingstone, the keeper of the Tower, and said, 'Mr. Kingstone, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before that time, and free from a life of pain.' The keeper attempting to comfort her, by observing that the suffering would be little, she replied, 'I have heard the executioner is very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, smiling) I have but a little neck!' When upon the scaffold, from a consideration of the welfare of Elizabeth her child, she refrained from speaking against her prosecutors, but contented herself with saying she was innocent, but had come to die according to the law. She prayed heartily for the king, calling him a merciful and gentle prince; and after some encomiums on his former kindness to her, laid her head upon the block. The expert executioner of Calais decapitated her at one blow; and her corpse was interred in the Tower, without any funeral ceremony whatever.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

The Pontificate of Leo X.—Leo X., who received the tiara at the age of thirty-seven, may be considered the pope who hurried on the Reformation; and that rather by his general character as

a man, than by any thing he effected as a ruler. He had been taken prisoner by the French at Ravenna, when acting for pope Julius as commander of the Roman troops; and had escaped from

duration, to the joy of his family at Florence, of which city he overthrew the popular constitution. Now seated in the papal chair, he made Rome the centre of European civilization. Never was its court so lively, so agreeable, so intellectual, as under his sway; no expenditure was too great to be lavished on religious and secular festivals, on amusements, theatres, presents, and marks of favour. Foreigners of all grades crowded to the capitol; but, when they beheld the splendour of its court, so opposed in character to the rude and coarse habits of their own countries, the greater portion, whose views were religious, took umbrage, and gladly joined the ranks of the enemies of the hierarchy. Although what is luxury to some is but civilization and refinement to others, and though the morals of Leo's court were perhaps less questionable than they had been reported, the intelligence of the mode of life practised at Rome, darkening of course as it spread, reached every part of the Christian world, and greatly loosened the hold of popery on the general veneration. The minds of men, therefore, were prepared to cavil at the bull which Leo issued 1518, claiming his right to sell indulgences; and as the announcement was regarded as a prelude to the dissolution of all moral restraints, the result to the hierarchy was fatal.

Rise of modern Persia. Neither the descendants of Jenghiz Khan, nor of Tamerlane, possessed Persia either as an integral or independent state; but in 1510, Ismael, called the Sage, of a Mahometan sect, reduced most of its provinces and took Bagdad. With the title of shah, he attacked Selim I. of Turkey; but being defeated by that monarch, he contented himself with the conquests he had made, and died 1523, transmitting the throne of Persia to a long line of posterity.

Battle of Marignan, near Milan, between Francis I. of France and the Swiss, 1515. The field was strewn with 20,000 slain on both sides, the victory being gained by the French.

It was one of the most furious and well-contested battles on record; and the marshal Trivelpzio, who had been present at eighteen pitched battles, affirmed that every engagement he had seen was child's play to it. 'The action of Marignan,' said he, 'was a combat of heroes.'

Egypt made tributary by the Turks. Selim I., 1518, compelled the Mamluk rulers of Egypt to act with the title of *beys* (mere governors of provinces), to collect the tribute which he levied upon it; and this order of things continued till nearly the close of the eighteenth century.

Seizure of Algiers by Barbarossa. On the expulsion of the Moors from Granada, they commenced a piratical life on the opposite coast; and well knowing each creek and inlet of the Spanish shore, continually carried off parties of their enemies into slavery. Cardinal Ximenes headed a force against them, and took Oran and Algiers: whereon the king of the latter applied for aid to Aronje Rasia, or red beard (*barba-rosa*), the son of a potter, the most skilful corsair of his day. The barbarian attacking Algiers with 5000 men, took it 1516, and having murdered the rightful prince, usurped the dominion. Although Ximenes attempted to dispossess him, his army was defeated, and his ships dispersed; and the pirate in the sequel possessed himself of all the neighbouring states. The troops of Charles V., however, killed him in battle 1518, but were never able to overthrow his brother and successor, Heyreddin, who scoured the Mediterranean, and, in a series of years, carried off thousands of Christians into slavery.

Origin of the Protestants. Charles V. and pope Clement VII. having, at the diet of Spire, 1529, rescinded the decrees of a former diet, which gave to each prince of the German empire a discretionary power over ecclesiastical affairs in his own state, John of Saxony, and other independent rulers, entered a solemn *protest* against the

measure, and appealed to a general council. Hence all the supporters of the Reformation were called *protestants*, as adherents to the principles of the protesting princes.

Rise of the Anabaptists. The anabaptist tenets had existed in Germany before the Reformation; but no decided sect had been founded before Munzer and others commenced what they called the new and perfect church. Anabaptists (or re-baptizers) consider the mode of infant-baptism ineffectual, and re-baptize any that have been so sprinkled, by immersing them in water; and to be efficacious, the rite must be performed, say they, when the party is of mature age. The *Baptists* hold the same opinions; though many of the latter allow of infant baptism, provided it be with immersion; and in other respects they greatly resemble the Lutherans, being in fact the main branch of the Waldenses.

Rise of the Antinomians. John Agricola taught, 1538, that the law is not necessary, now that the gospel has been promulgated; and that repentance is not to be preached from the decalogue, but from the gospel. As his opinions were calculated to supersede the necessity of good works and a virtuous life, Luther warmly attacked them; and it was he who gave them the appellation of *antinomian*, or against the law.

France under Francis I. He succeeded his uncle Louis XII. 1515, and died in the same year with our Henry VIII. Trained to chivalry by his mother, the ardent desire of his heart, on ascending the throne, was to display his talents in war. The conquest of Milan was effected by the battle of Marignan; soon after which his taste for contest was still further evinced by the spirit with which he laid claim to the German empire, in opposition to Charles, afterwards known as the Fifth. The latter was successful; but, as our Henry was considered to have in his hands the balance of European power, each party applied for aid against the other. Charles visited England in person, threw himself into Henry's

power, and flattered Wolsey; but Francis, inviting the monarch to a grand conference on the French soil, met him at Ardres, on 'the field of the cloth of gold.' Charles, however, eventually obtained the favour of Henry; and the pope joining them against Francis, all his Italian conquests were wrested from him, and himself taken prisoner at Pavia. Francis was rigorously confined, and was removed to Spain, where Charles resided. By a treaty at Madrid he was eventually released, on giving up his two sons as hostages; and on re-entering his own dominions, he mounted a Turkish horse, and putting it to its speed, waved his hand, and cried aloud several times, 'I am yet a king!' Soon after, Francis combined with pope Clement VII., Henry VIII., and other powers, by what was called the Holy League, to force Charles to deliver up his sons; whereon the emperor again marched into Italy, and sacked Rome with the most savage violence. The pope himself was made prisoner; and such horrors were perpetrated by the soldiery on defenceless women and venerable prelates, as eclipsed the former barbarous deeds of Huns and Goths and Vandals. Francis being at last discouraged, and almost exhausted, by so many unsuccessful enterprises, began to think of gaining the release of his sons by concession; and this he effected 1529, by yielding Flanders and Artois, and paying two millions of crowns to the emperor. During these commotions, females of rank, especially Louisa, the mother of Francis, and the duchess of d'Estampes, were chief actors in the government of France. Francis was the first monarch who introduced ladies at court, observing 'that a drawing-room without women was like the spring without flowers.'

Scotland under James V. He was only two when his father died, 1513; and the duke of Albany was elected regent. A series of violent disputes instantly commenced between the regent and the earl of Angus, who had married the queen-mother, sister of our Henry

VIII.; and for many years the English and French, under their respective partisans, kept Scotland in a state bordering on anarchy. At length the earl carried off the young king to Jedburgh, whence Walter Scott boldly attempted to rescue him, though his design failed, as also did that of the earl of Lennox; and James, by his own adroitness, escaped from bondage. Reaching Stirling castle, he summoned his nobles to meet him; and at the ensuing parliament, all the family of Douglas (Angus) were declared enemies of the state, and compelled to leave the country. A division soon ensued between Henry VIII. and his nephew: the former, upon throwing off the papal yoke, had desired a conference with James: but the latter, urged by cardinal Beatoun, and still adhering to the ancient faith, steadily refused. An invasion by the English ensued; and the Scottish nobles refusing to fight, upon coming in view of their enemies on the borders, James, broken in spirit, denounced his followers as cowards, and unworthy of their ancestors, took to his bed, and died. This event happened in his thirty-fifth year, 1542.

The Rule of Charles V.—Charles V., the most important political character of his day, was grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile, and received his education from Adrian, afterwards pope. Admirably skilled in martial exercises, he became king of Spain as Charles I. 1516; but leaving that country to be governed by his ministers, he was elected to the throne of Germany, 1519, in preference to his competitor Francis I. of France, who became his inveterate foe. Charles was thus the most powerful sovereign of the age, having rule over Germany, Spain, Naples, Burgundy, the Netherlands, and the newly-found America. His conflicts with Francis I., his rival, have been alluded to; and when a close had been put to them, he turned his arms against Heyreddin Barbarosa, who had taken Tunis from Mulei-Hassan, liberated 22,000 Christian slaves, and restored the monarch.

Greatly irritated by the proceedings of Luther, he laboured to put down the promoters of the Reformation; but he suddenly exchanged his kingly office for a monastic life, and in the retirement of St. Juste, forgot the temptations of sovereign power. Here, to accustom himself to regard with calmness his last hour, he celebrated his funeral obsequies, and here he died 1558. Without any very heroic qualities, Charles ruled with dignity and firmness: his conduct to his antagonist, Francis, however, was mean in the extreme, and produced its own punishment by the multiplied leagues it engendered against him.

Sweden free through Gustavus Vasa. Sweden having long been tyrannised over by the Danes, Gustavus Vasa, a relative of the royal family, who had lost his father in an insurrection of the people to restore their country to freedom, resolved on endeavouring to effect that glorious event himself. Escaping from the prison in which the Danes had confined him, he urged a body of the people to join him in an attack upon the capital; and when Stockholm had declared itself free, he was unanimously chosen sovereign 1523. He immediately established the protestant faith in Sweden.

Conquest of Mexico. Montezuma was emperor of Mexico at the time of the Spanish invasion. In 1519, when Cortez expressed his intention of visiting him in his capital, the emperor sent him a rich present, but forbade his nearer approach. Cortez, however, heeded not this prohibition; and Montezuma, intimidated, began vainly to negotiate for the departure of the Spaniards. His despotic government having procured him many enemies, who willingly joined Cortez, and assisted him in his progress to Mexico, he was obliged to consent to the advance of the Spaniards; to whom he assigned quarters in the town of Cholula. His plot to destroy the adventurers being discovered, a massacre of the Cholulans followed, and Cortez proceeded to the gates of the capital,

before Montezuma was determined how to receive him. His timidity, however, prevailed; and meeting the Spaniard in great state, he conducted him to more splendid quarters. Under the plea that Montezuma meditated the death of the Spaniards, Cortez seized him soon after, and kept him as a hostage at the Spanish quarters, until prevailed upon to acknowledge himself tributary to Spain. His pusillanimous address on the matter to his subjects excited their indignation, and he was mortally wounded on the temple, by a stone hurled at him, 1520. Mexico became thereupon a Spanish colony.

Murder of Cardinal Beatoun. This primate of Scotland under James V., was a violent opponent of the Reformation; insomuch that, when Henry VIII. had thrown off the papal yoke, he desired a conference with James, to prevent the cardinal's machinations. James, however, suffered Beatoun to summon heretics before him, and saw him direct his resentment against Sir John Borthwick, and George Bucha-

nan, the illustrious poet and historian, without attempting to check him. During the regency of Arran, in the next reign, one Wishart, a gentleman by birth, who employed himself with great zeal in preaching against the ancient faith at Dundee, was seized by the earl of Bothwell, at Beatoun's suggestion, and notwithstanding a promise of safety given him by the earl, was tried at St. Andrew's, and committed to the flames in front of the residence of the cardinal. Wishart suffered with patience; but observing Beatoun at a window, he declared to the bystanders, that in a few days *he* should in the very same place lie as low as himself was now exalted aloft. This prophecy was probably the immediate cause of the event it foretold. The disciples of the martyr, enraged at his cruel death, formed a conspiracy against the cardinal; and having forced their way into his palace, one James Melvil thrust him through the body in his bedchamber, 1546.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Thomas Wolsey, the son of an Ipswich butcher, took his bachelor's degree at Oxford at fourteen, and was called the boy bachelor. He became chaplain to Henry VII.; and Henry VIII. made him chancellor, then the highest preferment in the kingdom, and usually held by a divine. The pope made him a cardinal; but he was disappointed in his expectation of wearing the tiara after Leo X., though promised to be thus advanced by Charles V. The mode in which he lost the capricious Henry's favour, and his consequent death, have been already noticed. Wolsey was doubtless a man of noble mind, and his munificence almost surpasses belief. Fond of parade and pomp, he had in his retinue 800 servants, amongst whom were ten lords, fifteen knights, and forty esquires. When seized with his last illness, he discoursed learnedly on the nature of his malady; and told lord Shrewsbury that, should there not be a change, he

must die in eight days from excoriation of the bowels. His dying words should never be forgotten. 'Had I served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have forsaken me in my gray hairs;' and we may learn from his eventful life, that ambition is insatiable, the favour of princes unstable, and the service of God alone that which does not fail of bringing peace in the end.

Martin Luther, son of a Saxon miner, after a good education at Erfurt, became an Augustine monk. When Leo X., to complete St. Peter's church, ordered the sale of indulgences for the forgiveness of sins, Luther exclaimed against the proceeding, as unauthorized by God's word: and he and Tetzel, a monk of the Dominican order appointed to sell the pardons, were soon involved in a fierce paper-war. The pope and emperor tried by every means to silence the reformer; and had not Maurice, elector of Saxony, seized him

for protection, he would in all probability have died as a heretic. The northern Germans had long been prepared, by the doctrines of Huss, for a separation from the Romish church; an event speedily brought about, especially by Melancthon, a man as noted for meekness, as Luther was for an indomitable spirit. The charitable creed of Melancthon may be inferred from the reply he gave his aged mother, when anxiously asking him if she ought not to become a protestant. 'Go on,' said he, 'dearest mother, as you have done, and never trouble yourself about controversies.'

Sir Thomas More, celebrated for his unflinching integrity, succeeded Wolsey as chancellor, and assisted the king to write against Luther. But when Henry tried to influence him to obtain a divorce from his queen, More was inflexible, and retired from office. Refusing to acknowledge the king's supremacy, he was beheaded on Tower-hill, 1535. His *Utopia*, a political romance, gives an account of a people pretended to have been discovered by Americus.

Copernicus, the Prussian astronomer, after twenty years' laborious study, proved the Pythagorean system, which places the sun in the centre of the universe, to be correct, and the Ptolemaic, then universally followed, erroneous.

Cortez, a Spaniard, turned his mind to foreign travel. Conquest was his aim; and he was enabled by his artillery and military force to seize upon the state of Mexico in America; but not without sacrificing in the most bloodthirsty manner hosts of innocent Indians, together with their king (*Montezuma*) and his nephew. So horrible were his barbarities, that the native South-Americans have ever since regarded Europeans with dread and hatred.

Rafaele d'Urbino, called the divine amongst painters. In gracefulness of style he has never been equalled: he was also a good architect, and was employed by Leo X. to complete St. Peter's cathedral.

Magellan, a Portuguese who first sailed through the straits which bear his name, into the South sea, where he was killed by the people of the Ladrone isles, of which he had taken possession for Charles V.

Erasmus, the excellent theologian of Rotterdam, after being a monk, entered himself at Oxford. More, Colet, Latimer, and other scholars, soon found out his great talents; and he was appointed Margaret professor at Cambridge. He wrote against Luther; and though acknowledging the errors of the church of Rome, was extremely opposed to the violence of the chief reformers, and died a Roman catholic.

Colet, dean of St. Paul's, founded the school near that cathedral for 153 boys, making Lilly, author of what we now call the Eton Latin Grammar, its first master, and the mercers' company of London its patrons. Colet's knowledge did not extend to Greek, as that language was then considered unnecessary.

Ignatius of Loyola had been a soldier; but on receiving a severe wound in battle, he determined upon a life of self-mortification. After a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, he agreed with nine others to devote his life to the maintenance of religion in all countries. Pope Paul III. confirmed his order, under the title of the society of Jesus; and the first efforts of the members were directed against Lutheranism. The jesuits, as they were now called, had increased at Loyola's death, 1556, to the number of 10,000; and vast additions were made to their society by its zeal in the conversion of newly-discovered countries to Christianity. Although pope Clement XIV. suppressed the order 1773, it still exists.

Holbein, a Swiss, patronized by Sir Thomas More, became historical painter to king Henry. Many of his productions remain, and display great merit. He was a man of rude manners; inasmuch that Henry used to say in his defence, 'He is a ploughman, it is true, and I can turn a ploughman into

a peer ; but where is the peer I can change into a Holbein !'

Correggio painted the Assumption on the cupola of the cathedral of Parma, for which the canons ungratefully paid him only 200 livres in copper ; and it is said that the weight of his load, which he carried home to his starving family unassisted, on a sultry day, brought on a pleurisy, of which he died 1534, aged only forty. Titian used to say he would willingly have been *Correggio* : the latter was the first to introduce foreshortenings.

Leland, the father of antiquaries, who began a work of extraordinary excellence on the antiquities of England, from which all his successors have borrowed, was promoted in the church by Henry, but died insane, from over-study.

Machiavel, the political philosopher, was secretary to the Florentine republic. His book, called 'The Prince,' describes the arts of government as usually exercised by wicked rulers ; and it is still disputed whether his work was intended to expose the arts of politicians, or to prescribe rules for governing mankind effectually. Lord Bacon considered him an enemy to tyranny ; while others have believed machiavelism and tyranny to mean the same thing.

Rabelais, the French wit, author of the history of Gargantua and Pantagruel, was a monk and physician. He was greatly loved at Montpellier, because by his eloquence he prevented the destruction of that university, 1530.

St. Theresa, born in Spain, being early inspired with the romantic desire of becoming a martyr, eloped from home with her brother, to seek death amongst the infidel Moors. Being brought back, she erected an hermitage in her father's garden, for retirement and devotion ; and ultimately took the veil among the Carmelites at Avila, at the age of twenty-two. Her rapturous piety produced general admiration ; and being dissatisfied at the relaxation

of discipline in her order, she was enabled, after overcoming much opposition, to found a convent of reformed Carmelite nuns at Avila, and the first monastery of barefooted Carmelite friars (so called from their wearing sandals instead of shoes). She was canonized by Gregory XV., and her character is to this day highly appreciated in catholic countries.

Philip de Comines of Flanders, whose excellent memoirs of his own times give an accurate account of the reigns of Louis XI. and Charles VIII.

Polydore Virgil, an Italian, wrote while in England its history in Latin, to the end of Henry VII.'s reign. The style is good ; but, as a record of events, it is inaccurate.

Zuinglius, the reformer, who, in the canton of Zurich, spread the protestant tenets ; but was opposed to Luther in many respects. Taking arms, to support his cause against the other Swiss cantons, he was killed in battle 1531.

The Chevalier Bayard, of a noble French family, followed Charles VIII. into Italy, and was styled by that monarch 'le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche !' He was not less active when in the service of Louis XII., contributing greatly to the conquest of Milan, and, like Cocles, singly defending a bridge against 200 warriors. So great became his reputation, that Francis I. chose to be knighted by his sword. He fell by a musket-shot in the retreat from Rebec, 1524 ; and his last moments were peculiarly characteristic of the man. Having kissed the cross of his sword while helpless on the ground, he confessed himself to his squire and requested to be placed with his back to a tree, having his face turned towards the enemy. The constable of Bourbon, then fighting against his country, on coming up in pursuit, expressed his regret at seeing so brave a soldier about to die : 'It is not I who am to be pitied !' replied Bayard, 'but you,

who carry arms against your king, your country, and your oath,' and so saying, he expired.

Gaston de Foix, whose fame has

been spread by romantic chroniclers, was nephew of Louis XII., and gained the victory at Ravenna, dying soon after in battle, aged only twenty-four.

INVENTIONS, &c.

St. Paul's School, London, founded 1509, by Dean Colet, for the instruction in humane letters of 153 boys gratis, the number being selected in accordance with that of the miraculous draught of fishes mentioned in *St. John's* gospel. The income of the school is now above 5000*l.*, besides an additional 1000*l.* from a bequest of viscount Camden (1685) for the endowment of exhibitions of 100*l.* per annum each at Trinity college, Cambridge. There are also numerous exhibitions of fifty pounds a year, each tenable for five years at either university. The school apartments were rebuilt entirely of stone 1824, on the old site in *St. Paul's* churchyard; with a fine arcade for the recreation of the boys.—*College of Physicians*, London, instituted by Dr. Linacre.—*Muskets* invented; and cannons and mortars first made in England. Cannon-balls were still made of stone.—*Whitehall* built by Wolsey.—*St James's Palace* built.—*Damask and Musk Roses*, also carrots, turnips, pippin-apples, and hops, first grown in England. Currants white and red, were first introduced into England from the Netherlands. The black-currant is supposed to be an indigenous plant of our island.—*The Order*

of Jesuits founded 1535, by Loyola.—*The Bible* first printed in English, 1542.—*Pins* first used in England: ladies had previously employed small wooden skewers.—*Trinity College, Cambridge*, founded by Henry VIII.; and *Christ Church Oxford*, by Wolsey.—*The famous Council of Trent* began 1545, and lasted eighteen years. It was held to protect the Roman Catholic faith, then so assailed by the protestants; and its decisions are now the standing rule of the papal church.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1481, Bajazet II.; 1512, Selim I.; 1520, Solyman II. *Popes*. 1503, Julius II.; 1513, Leo X.; 1522, Adrian VI.; 1533, Clement VII.; 1534, Paul III. *Scotland*. 1488, James IV.; 1513, James V.; 1542, Mary Stuart. *France*, 1498, Louis XII.; 1515, Francis I.; 1547, Henry II. *Sweden*, 1523, Gustavus Vasa. *Denmark and Norway*. 1481, John I.; 1513, Christian II. *Denmark alone*. 1523, Frederick I.; 1534, Christian III. *Portugal*. 1495, Emanuel; 1521, John III. *Germany*. 1493, Maximilian IV.; 1519, Charles V. of Spain. *Spain*. 1474, Ferdinand and Isabella; 1504, Joan, and then Philip the Fine; 1516, Charles V.

SECTION III.

EDWARD VI., KING OF ENGLAND.

1547 TO 1553—6 YEARS.

Personal History. Edward VI. was born at Hampton Court (the palace which was built by Wolsey, and presented by him to Henry VIII., when his magnificent style of living had been made matter of question) 1537, being the son of Jane Seymour. He was only nine when his father died; at which period he had made fair progress in the classics, Italian, French, and Spanish.

He was a pious youth; and continually kept a journal of his actions, which is still preserved in the British Museum. He is said to have planned himself the foundation of what are called the royal hospitals in London; establishments which have been a blessing to the country. As a proof of his sense of propriety, we may name his refusal, when very young, to stand upon a large bible, which an attendant placed so as to enable him to look out of a window.

Political History. The reign of Edward was both brief and tumultuous. His maternal uncle Seymour, duke of Somerset, protector during his minority, engaged in a quarrel with the Scots, because they opposed his project of uniting Edward to their young queen Mary. The protector even marched an army into their country, and gained the battle of Pinkey; but the Scots nevertheless removed their queen to France, and contracted her to the dauphin. Meanwhile Somerset's own brother, the lord high admiral, opposed his government; and his conduct being thought treasonable, the duke unnaturally commanded his execution. Many disturbances followed, arising from the divided state of public opinion in matters of religion; it being no uncommon thing for one portion of a family to embrace protestantism, while the remainder adhered to the ancient faith. Somerset himself being accused by Dudley, earl of Warwick, and other noblemen envious of his authority, of usurping the sovereign power, was now brought to the block; and Dudley, who had succeeded as duke of Northumberland, was chosen protector in his place. The duke, finding the king's health declining, considered this a favourable moment to promote his own ambitious projects; and he accordingly represented to Edward that his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, had been declared illegitimate by the parliament, while the queen of Scots stood excluded by his father's will. Under these circumstances, the succession naturally devolved to the marchioness of Dorset, younger sister of Henry VIII., whose daughter, lady Jane Grey, was every way accomplished for government. Having prevailed upon Edward, therefore, to settle the crown in this manner, he obtained the dukedom of Suffolk for lord Dorset, and induced that nobleman to give his daughter, lady Jane, to his own son, lord Guildford Dudley, in marriage. The king's death was now evidently near at hand, and it was even suspected that Northumberland, who would not suffer any but his own emissaries to be near his person, had contributed to hasten it; especially as no one acted in a medical capacity about the prince but an ignorant woman, who had very confidently undertaken his cure. The young king expired at Greenwich, July 6th, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age; and was buried in Westminster-abbey.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Reformation effected, and the Union of Church and State preserved. This alliance, which had been ever upheld by, as it had first originated with, that portion of the Christian church misnamed catholic, was fully maintained by the church of England, after its separation from the parent stock. The union in question may be called an establishment for the perpetual maintenance and diffusion of religious truth, supported by civil authority; and as the grand objects of society

are thereby effected, namely the religious and moral education of the poor, and the due restraint upon the manners and habits of the classes above them,—such an institution possesses all the qualities of a sound civil principle.

Though kings are not necessarily, and have not always been, 'nursing fathers' of the Christian church, we may be allowed to say a few words in defence of a system which, in England at least, has hitherto been productive of the greatest benefits. Nor should it

be forgotten that religion was the grand principle of unity in all the political associations of ancient times : that the temple of Tyrian Hercules became the centre of the Phœnician league, that of Jupiter Latialis of the Latin confederacy, and the festival of Olympian Jupiter the grand contracting tie of all the states of Greece. The bitterest political opponents acknowledged themselves children of one mother, while worshipping in the temples erected by the piety of their common ancestors.

To prove that the union of the church with the state has, in England, produced the most substantial good to society, we have only to look to facts. All our religious knowledge has been derived from the labours of a body of men, who, educated after a certain and uniform standard, have been set apart to teach mankind the truths of the gospel. This body, composed originally of apostles, bishops, presbyters, and deacons, forming together what we acknowledge as The Church, or rule of Christianity, became one with the state of each country as it was converted ; or in other words, the church necessarily became a corporation, 'that is, what the law calls a moral and civil person living for ever ; having always the same interests and identity, and, by means of the succession of its members, always being in a state of power to fulfil its functions.' After receiving this incorporation, it continued to transmit the truths of revelation to successive generations ; and the maintenance and transmission of these truths in their original integrity, constitutes its occupation from sabbath to sabbath, and will so constitute it from century to century, until time shall be no more.

Each of the 12,000 parishes of England, which on the average contain individually 3000 acres, or a piece of ground two miles square, has its appointed teacher : a person whose office it is to preach Christianity throughout the year, and whose practice it is to minister to all wants,

spiritual and even temporal. The education and condition in life of this teacher give him almost necessarily the highest qualifications ; and his worth in the eyes of the poor may be in a measure estimated, if we reflect upon their constant appeal to him when calamities of great or small moment befall them. The parsonage-house is, in rural districts, the hospital and almshouse of the village ; and to the collision thus afforded between a well-educated family and the ignorant peasantry, beyond the instruction of the pulpit, the civilization of the country-people is mainly attributable. Parsonages, and vicarage-houses, are, in this respect, like oases in the desert ; and were the system of filling them with the class which now occupies them abandoned, a return to savage manners on the part of the rustics would be the natural result. Studded over as England is with these centres of refinement, there is a security at once for the growth of the kindlier virtues in the breasts of the poor ; while, from the same admirable arrangement, we have the best portion of a system of general education,—that portion which instructs men in their daily duty, and consoles them under the evils of life, by pointing out the certainty of a future and happier state. 'In this sense the church is emphatically the property of the poor ; an endowment to which every man has a right of access ; a gift of past generations, and costing nothing to the present.'

In confirmation of what has been here alleged in favour of a state-religion, it may be briefly observed, in conclusion, that, as respects the Church of England, the majority of educated and thinking men in the nation agree in the belief of her having, by means of the support she has received from the civil power, and by the instrumentality of her many and excellent divines of all ages, preserved in her liturgy and articles the pure doctrines of the primitive apostolic church ; to which they, at the same time, feel assured she approaches

nearer in spirit, than any other ecclesiastical system in the world.

The Ketts' rebellion in Norfolk, 1549. The people had begun to feel the loss of the monasteries. The monks, always residing in their convents, spent their money among their tenants, and were a sure resource to the poor and sick: like the clergy of England in the present day, they were also the best and most indulgent landlords in the world. But when the abbey-lands were given to the nobility, rents were raised, ground, which had hitherto been common to all, was enclosed, and the farmers could find no market for their produce. The indigent, too, in their utmost need, had no benignant friar to listen to their tale, to relieve their poverty, nor assuage their sickness. Discontent against the government therefore manifested itself; and in Norfolk, one Kett, a tanner, and his brother, took up arms,

and defeated the army sent to suppress his insurrection, killing lord Sheffield, the general. The earl of Warwick finally subdued the rebels, hanged one of the Ketts on the top of Warwick castle, the other on the steeple of Wymondham church, and nine of the most active on the boughs of an oak, under which the insurgents had first assembled, and which they had called the oak of reform.

Two Plagues visited England 1548 and 1551, the latter a destructive sweating-sickness, for the third time.

—*Magic Powers* being attributed to astronomical and other physical books, they were ordered to be burned throughout England, 1552.—*The Year of Plenty, 1553*, when all the fruits of the earth were in extraordinary abundance. A barrel of beer sold for sixpence, and four large loaves for a penny.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Calvin, the reformer, was born in France, and quitted the clerical profession for the law. Taking up the business of the reformation with ardour, he was induced by some friends at Geneva to re-enter the church. Though he assailed the catholics with vigour, he opposed Luther and was so singular in many points of belief, that a new division of the Christian church sprung up under his guidance, called after him the church of Geneva. His doctrine of unqualified predestination, whereby man's free agency is destroyed, has produced much contention and positive evil; and his fiery zeal, which induced him to commit Servetus to the flames, brought as great odium on the name of protestant, as fell upon that of catholic in the next reign. The pope, speaking of him, observed that 'burning was only a sin when resorted to by the catholics to destroy heresy.' As a private character, however, Calvin was very exemplary.

Benvenuto Cellini, the Florentine

sculptor, and worker in silver, was so favoured by Clement VII. that he intrusted him with the command of the castle of St. Angelo, when Rome was besieged by Bourbon. His chasing-work is extraordinarily elegant, and many of his inimitable works are to be seen in the various collections of sovereigns.

Solyman II., emperor of Turkey, called the Magnificent, defeated the beys in Egypt who had revolted against his power; and turning his arms against the emperor of Germany, took Belgrade. In 1522 he seized on Rhodes; and having defeated the Hungarians at Mohatz, 1526, with the loss of their king, made Hungary a Turkish province. In 1565 his troops attacked Malta; but, after a display of valour almost incredible by the few knights of the island, the immense army of the Turks was driven off. Death put an end to Solyman's projects, which aimed at nothing less than the subjugation of all Europe, at the age of seventy-six.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Royal Hospitals, London, were chartered by Edward. King Henry, when he seized the monasteries, tried to ease his conscience by laying out a part of the booty in works of charity; and Edward, following out his intention, instituted Christ-church for the education of decayed London merchants' sons and daughters: 1400 boys are now clothed, boarded, and educated there, and about 200 girls at the preparatory school belonging to it at Hertford. Bridewell-hospital was to relieve paupers, and punish vagrants; and it is now associated with Henry VIII.'s foundation of Bethlem, wherein 460 lunatic patients are provided for. St. Bartholomew's and St. Thomas's are for the sick, and such as meet with accidental injuries.

The Common-Prayer book was ordered by act of parliament to be printed, 1552; which period must be considered as the true era of the church of England,

The Horse Guards first instituted in England,—*Lords Lieutenant* of counties first appointed.—*Crowns and Half-crowns* first coined in England.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1520, Solyman II. *Popes*. 1534, Paul III.; 1550, Julius III. *Scotland*. 1542, Mary Stuart. *France*. 1547, Henry II. *Sweden*. 1523, Gustavus Vasa. *Denmark and Norway*. 1534, Christian III. *Portugal*. 1521, John III. *Germany*. 1519, Charles V. *Spain*. 1516, Charles V.

SECTION IV.

MARY I., QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1553 TO 1558—5 YEARS.

Personal History. Mary, Henry's daughter by Catherine of Arragon, was born at Greenwich, 1516. She was of middle height, of somewhat masculine aspect, though rather melancholy in expression of countenance, than stern or severe. Her faults arose from her education, and the circumstances attendant upon her youth. She had been nurtured as a catholic; had been cruelly treated by her father, who had declared her illegitimate, and shut her out from the succession; she had seen that same parent strive with one hand to destroy the faith of his fathers, while with the other he maintained it as his own hope of salvation; she had been treated with rigour by her brother's ministry, because of her religion; and she had seen both her father and her brother persecute to death those who would not relinquish opinions that had grown with their growth. Her sincere belief in the correctness of her views, the barbarous conduct of both sides in the reformation, the general spirit of intolerance which pervaded Europe, and the zeal which usually animates the female mind when bent upon high designs, were the combined causes of her severity and cruelty; though her immediate part in the horrors of her reign has been greatly exaggerated by party historians. Mary married the son of Charles V., who succeeded to the crown of Spain as Philip II., but had no issue.

Political History. Mary had been betrothed in her infancy to the dauphin, to Charles V., and to the duke of Orleans; but none of these matches took place. The death of her brother made her resolve to select a husband for herself. When that event occurred, being warned by lord Arundel of the conspiracy against her, she hastened into Norfolk first, and then to Fram-

lingham, in Suffolk, with a view to escape to Flanders, should the people accept of lady Jane Grey for their sovereign. But as she openly declared her wish to maintain the laws of Edward, many of the nobility joined her, induced her to try her right, and finally accompanied her to London. The duke of Northumberland, to support his daughter's cause, had levied an army which soon deserted him; and after proclaiming the lady Jane queen, he was compelled to surrender his claim, and to congratulate Mary upon her succession.

One of Mary's first measures, after the execution of Northumberland and Suffolk, was the reinstatement of the prelates who had been suspended in the late reign; while archbishop Cranmer, who had shown so much zeal for the reformation, was prosecuted for high treason, and several other protestant bishops imprisoned. The queen, soon after this, accepted the hand of Philip of Spain; an union which at once proved to the reformers that their hopes would be crushed. Various insurrections consequently arose in different parts of the kingdom, but were suppressed by the queen's energetic conduct; and as they implicated both the princess Elizabeth and lady Jane Grey, the former was sent to the Tower, and the latter and her husband condemned to death. In 1554 Philip took up his abode with Mary in London, the country was reconciled with all due formality to the papal see, and the laws against heretics were revived.

Bishops Gardiner and Bonner appear to have been the chief actors in the tragedies which followed, and cardinal Pole to have been opposed to such cruel measures as had already deprived him of a beloved mother. No fewer than 277 persons were committed to the flames, including prelates, private clergymen, laymen of all ranks, women, and even children, for their refusal to resume the popish faith. Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer were among the sufferers. Sincerity in her opinions is the only mitigatory plea for the unhappy Mary; who was even prepared to sacrifice the revenues of the crown in restitution of the goods of the church, which had been so tyrannically alienated by her father. Her marriage was now noticed to have proved as unpropitious to herself as to the nation. Philip, who was her junior by eleven years, began to treat her with neglect; and to prevent the fulfilment of his threat of deserting her, she supplied troops to the Spaniards, then at war with the French, and contributed to the defeat of the latter at St. Quentin. This result, of no service to England, was quickly counterbalanced by the loss of Calais, which was taken by the duke of Guise, after it had been in the hands of the English 200 years. The latter event deeply affected Mary, already in a declining way from a dropsical complaint, aggravated by a consciousness of the hatred of her subjects, and the indifference or aversion of her husband. She expired in the forty-second year of her age, observing, in her last moments, that the word *Calais* would be found engraven on her heart. She was buried in her grandfather's chapel in Westminster-abbey.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Burning for Heresy. The persecutions began with *Rogers*, prebendary of St. Paul's, who nobly refused to relinquish his opinions, though he had a wife and ten children whom he dearly loved. Such was his serenity after condemnation, that the jailors had to wake him from a sound sleep, when the hour of execution arrived.

—*Hooper*, bishop of Gloucester, was sent to his own diocese to be executed, with a view to strike terror into his flock. But the excellent prelate gloried in showing them, by his death, what influence the doctrines he had preached could exercise over minds prepared to encounter affliction. When tied to the stake, the queen's pardon was set

upon a stool before him, which he might receive, if he would recant; but he ordered it to be removed, and cheerfully submitted to the death that awaited him. He suffered most severely. The wind was violent, and blew the flames from his body; so that his legs were consumed before the vital parts were attacked. One of his hands dropped off: yet did he continue exhorting his hearers to remain steadfast in their faith, until the swelling of his tongue prevented his utterance. —*Ridley*, bishop of London, and *Latimer*, bishop of Worcester, perished in the same fire at Oxford, and supported each other's constancy by their mutual exhortations. *Latimer*, when tied to the stake, called to his companion, 'Be of good cheer, brother: we shall this day kindle in England such a torch, as, I trust in God, shall never be extinguished!' The executioners had been so merciful as to tie bags of gunpowder about them: the explosion instantly killed the aged *Latimer*, but *Ridley* continued some time alive. It is needless to enumerate the cruelties practised in England during the three years these persecutions lasted. Suffice it to say, the crime for which almost all were condemned was a refusal to acknowledge the real presence of our Lord's body in the sacrament of the Eucharist. *Gardiner*, who had expected that a few examples would make a sufficient impression on the reformers, and ensure their recantation, finding the work daily multiply upon

him, devolved the invidious office upon others; and chiefly on *Bonner*, a man of profligate manners, and of a brutal character, who seemed to rejoice in the torments of the unhappy sufferers. He would sometimes whip the prisoners with his own hands; once tore out the beard of an heretical Jew; and that he might give the man a specimen of burning, he forcibly held the poor fellow's hand over a candle until the sinews and veins shrank and burst.

Loss of Calais. The French having lost St. Quentin by the attack of the combined Spaniards and English, and a number of their nobility having fallen during the siege, became alarmed, fortified Paris, and hastily recalled the duke of Guise and his army from Italy. Guise at once determined on seizing Calais, a thing hitherto considered by the French impracticable. The duke, however, had observed that the English garrison, not expecting winter-attacks, was always much less in strength after the autumnal season, than in the spring and summer: and as Philip of Spain had gone into winter-quarters, he determined to try what a winter-campaign would effect. Blockading the place both by sea and land, without delay, he soon made a breach in the walls, drained the fosse, and, after killing 200 men in a furious assault, forced the weak garrison to capitulate. Thus in eight days did the valour of Guise effect a conquest, which it had taken Edward III. eleven months to ensure.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

France under Henry II., 1547. Disregarding his father's dying admonition, to keep the Guises and the Montmorenci at a distance, he drew them about his person, and suffered the court to be ruled by the celebrated *Diana de Poitiers*. His opposition to the protestants was marked; and one of his own clergy would have fallen a victim for heresy, but for the jest of a courtier: 'When he said, Sire, that your parent, for his holy life, had not stayed in purgatory, but had gone direct to

heaven, he meant not to do away with purgatory, but knew that king Francis was one who never stopped any where.' The people of Bourdeaux having killed their governor, *Monneins*, and salted his body, to show their hatred of a salt-tax, *Montmorenci*, as constable of France, put down the tumult with circumstances of great severity; and soon after, the country was successively involved in war with England, Germany, and Spain. In the contest with Spain, the English, whose queen (*Mary*) was

the wife of its ruler, gained a decisive victory over Coligni, the French general, at St. Quentin, and took that brave man prisoner; but Calais was soon recovered from the English by de Guise, and Henry devoted all his attention from this moment to the extirpation of the protestants. An acci-

dent put a period to his life; for, calling on the count de Montmorenci to break a lance with him at a tournament, he received a mortal wound in the temple, 1559. His queen was Catherine de Medicis, and their son espoused the unhappy Mary of Scotland.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Lady Jane Grey was daughter of Mary, Henry VIII.'s sister, by her second marriage with the duke of Suffolk. To high classical acquirements were united in her person great beauty, benevolence, and modesty. Regardless of the frivolous occupations of the great of her day, she sought for gratification in meditation; and observed to her tutor, Ascham, who found her reading Plato, while the rest of the family were hunting, that the sport they were enjoying was but a shadow compared to the pleasure she received from the study of that sublime author. The alliances of her house, however, were unhappily too powerful to permit her indulgence of this coveted seclusion. While others rejoiced in her union with the son of Northumberland, she alone seemed unconcerned; and when hailed queen after Edward's death, she indignantly refused the proffered elevation, until her father and her husband enforced compliance. She was accordingly proclaimed at the Tower: but in ten days the nation declared in favour of Mary, and lady Jane returned to her private station with delight. Her acquiescence, however, was construed by the unrelenting party of Mary into a proof of active guilt: she saw her father, her father-in-law, and their numerous adherents, brought to the scaffold for their ambitious project, and was herself, with her husband, to expiate her unwilling offence in the same ignominious manner. When the day appointed for her death had arrived, she with great readiness followed Sir John Gage, the constable, to the place of execution; and when on the scaffold, she mildly observed to the bystanders, 'that her offence was

not the having laid her hand upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient constancy: that she had less erred through ambition than through reverence to her parents, whom she had been taught to respect and obey: that she willingly received death, as the only satisfaction which she could now make to the injured state: and that the story of her life, she hoped, might at least be useful, by proving that innocence excuses not great misdeeds, if they tend to the public injury.' She then caused herself to be unrobed by her women, and with a serene countenance submitted herself to the axe.

Cardinal Pole, who was related to the royal house, had great influence in England during Mary's reign, as archbishop of Canterbury, and the pope's legate. He had offended Henry VIII. by opposing his divorce from Catherine, and quitted England for Rome; where on the death of Paul II., 1549, he was twice elected to the papal chair. Unlike Wolsey, however, he declined that high dignity; and joyfully returned to his native country, on hearing that Mary wished for his advice. He reconciled the parliament to the pope, gave them absolution, and proposed that persuasion, and not persecution, should be resorted to, to bring back the prelates and clergy who had enlisted amongst the reformers. We have seen how Gardiner overruled this advice, by punishing a few with severity, in order to strike terror into the rest; and how far the consequence fell short of the bishop's wish. Pole henceforth was silent; insomuch that he was once accused to the pope of being a protestant in disguise. He died of an

ague on the same day with the queen, aged fifty-eight.

Thomas Cranmer, born at Aslacton, Notts, became a fellow of Jesus college, Cambridge. Here he was noted for the care of his health; and one of his maxims was to quit his desk, and if possible his room, every half-hour, to change his position, and dissipate his thoughts. The ability with which, as a young divine, he argued respecting the king's marriage with his brother's widow, recommended Cranmer to Henry VIII., who sent him to Rome as his ambassador, and then raised him to the see of Canterbury. It was he who pronounced the divorce between Henry and Catherine, who married the king to Anne Boleyn, and again divorced him from the latter. Thus at war with the pope, he earnestly laboured to advance the reformation by aiding Coverdale, afterwards bishop of Exeter, in a translation of the bible, and by revising the offices of the church. After putting the crown on the head of Edward VI., he took a great share in the drawing up of our inimitable liturgy; a work which has been long the admiration, not only of those for whose use it was compiled, but of most classes of dissenters from the established church. Cranmer now exerted himself strenuously to extend the protestant faith; and, in his zeal to make converts, was even inclined to regard persecution as a justifiable instrument. In this spirit, when, as head of a commission to try all anabaptists, heretics, and contemners of the book of common prayer, he was deputed to obtain the king's signature to a warrant for the death of Joan Boucher, called the maid of Kent, for heretical notions regarding our Lord's birth, he entered into a lengthened argument with Edward on the necessity of the case; and when the king at last reluctantly assented, he passionately observed to the primate, 'that if any wrong were done, the guilt must be entirely on his head.' Cranmer, after making a new effort to reclaim the woman, but in vain, com-

mitted her to the flames. As the primate was, soon after, the chief in a council to deprive bishop Gardiner of his see, for his adherence to popery, this act of severity to Boucher was treasured up by the deprived prelate, and tended, when Gardiner's party was again in power, to hurry on Cranmer's own and like destruction. On the accession of Mary, the primate, who had espoused the cause of lady Jane Grey, was committed to the Tower; but the charge of treason being commuted to heresy, he was removed with Ridley and Latimer, 1554, to Oxford, where, overcome by the terrors of death, he signed a recantation of his faith. His enemies, however, would not allow his plea to avail him; and being called upon to give a public declaration of his belief in St. Mary's church, Oxford, he surprised his persecutors by a solemn renunciation of the tenets which, in a moment of terror, he had embraced, exclaiming 'that the hand which signed the dishonourable deed should first perish in the flames.' He was immediately dragged over against Balliol college, where, standing in his shirt, and without shoes, he was tied to the stake. The fire was soon kindled, and the archbishop, stretching his right hand into the flames, kept continually ejaculating, 'This hand! this unworthy hand!' until his last prayer, 'Lord Jesus, receive my spirit!' closed his mortal sufferings. This happened in his sixty-seventh year.

Diana de Poitiers, the mistress of Henry II. of France, who at forty captivated the young monarch of eighteen, completely ruled the French cabinet until the king's death; and with an ability that tended much to the peace of her country. To great powers of mind she added unusual personal charms. She was the daughter of count St. Vallier, who had been condemned to lose his head for favouring the escape of the constable Bourbon; but who was pardoned on his daughter's throwing herself at the feet of Francis I., to solicit his life.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Coaches were first used in England. — *Glass manufactures*, especially window-glass, introduced into England. — *The Russian Company* established in London, for an exclusive monopoly of the trade with Russia.

SOVEREIGNS. <i>Turkey</i> . 1520, Solyman II. <i>Popes</i> . 1550, Julius III.; 1555, Marcellus II. and	Paul IV. <i>Scotland</i> . 1542, Mary Stuart. <i>France</i> . 1547, Henry II. <i>Sweden</i> . 1523, Gustavus Vasa. <i>Denmark and Norway</i> . 1534, Christian III. <i>Portugal</i> . 1521, John III.; 1557, Sebastian. <i>Germany</i> . 1519, Charles V. <i>Spain</i> . 1516, Charles V.; 1555, Philip II.
---	---

SECTION V.

ELIZABETH, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1558 TO 1603—45 YEARS.

Personal History. Elizabeth was Henry VIII.'s daughter by Anne Boleyn; and was born at Greenwich, 1533. She had a commanding person, and more of feminine beauty than her sister Mary possessed. Paul Hentzner, the German traveller, thus describes her in his visit to Greenwich: 'Next came the queen, very majestic; her face oblong and fair; her eyes small, yet black and pleasing; her nose rather hooked, her lips thin, but her teeth discoloured; she wore false hair, and that red: upon her head she had a small crown, her bosom was uncovered, and she had on a necklace of exceedingly fine jewels: her hands were small, her fingers long, and her stature neither tall nor short: her air was stately, and her manner of speaking mild and obliging.' Estimating the character of Elizabeth from the events of her reign, she will justly rank high amongst sovereigns. Under her auspices, the protestant religion was firmly established, factions restrained, government strengthened, the vast power of Spain nobly opposed, oppressed neighbours supported, and the national fame aggrandized. She sought to gain the affections of the people by dignified concession, and a cautious demeanour. She was frugal almost to avarice: but being as careful of the people's money as of her own, she materially contributed to the public welfare. Her greatest errors were her cruelty to her cousin, Mary of Scots; general violence and haughtiness of temper; impatience of contradiction; and an insatiable fondness for flattery. She had, in a remarkable degree, that weakness of the age, which induced a resort to astrological quacks in affairs of importance; and the noted John Dee, the alchymist, by acting thus as Elizabeth's prophet, was supplied abundantly by her with money, to pursue his search after the philosopher's stone. In extenuation of her severity to catholics, it must be allowed, that most of those who suffered had sought the overthrow of the state: as respects her cruelty to her relative and rival, it is certain that the deed was considered necessary both by her ministers, and a vast majority of the people. Elizabeth, though substantially a learned woman, was no very munificent patroness, and made but poor returns to authors for the excess of incense they bestowed upon her. She was rather great as a politician, than either estimable as a moralist, or amiable as a woman; but her reign, on the whole, was as honourable as seems possible to the intellect and capacity of the person presiding over it. As she never married, she has been designated, with truth, the virgin queen of England.

Political History. In the reign of Mary, Elizabeth had been placed under circumstances of difficulty, through her known attachment to protestantism;

and but for the politic interference of her brother-in-law, Philip of Spain, would have been in great personal danger. On the death of her sister, she was received in the metropolis with the loudest acclamations ; and wisely forgetting all the affronts which had been put upon her, displayed a gracious demeanour which won all hearts. Philip soon made her an offer of marriage ; but he was too unpopular with the nation to allow her to think of him as a husband. By her first parliament, she settled the religion of the country into its present form ; and England took the high station amongst European nations which it has ever since held. The queen's attention, in foreign matters, was first directed to Scotland. Mary, its young queen, was not only next heir to the English crown after herself, but was regarded by the catholics, who deemed Elizabeth illegitimate, as the true sovereign of England. By Mary's marriage with the dauphin, and her relationship to the Guises, Scotland was drawn into a closer union than ever with France. Thus great political causes of enmity abounded, in addition to that female rivalry which was the most conspicuous foible of Elizabeth. The first step she took in Scottish affairs, was to send a fleet and army to aid Knox in the reformation ; and this interference drove the French from Scotland. On Mary's arrival in her dominions from France, after the death of her husband, she being then but nineteen years of age, attempts were made to obtain Elizabeth's recognition of her title, as presumptive heiress to the crown of England ; but although the proposals were highly disagreeable to the latter, the two queens lived for some time in apparent amity.

Meanwhile Elizabeth had many suitors amongst the princes of Europe ; but she constantly resisted marriage, and turned her mind entirely to affairs of state. She aided the Huguenots in France with men and money, assailed the catholics at home, and opposed the queen of Scots in her design to obtain a second husband. She began soon after to adopt court-favourites, selecting them for their personal accomplishments, rather than for their sterling merit, as in the well-known instance of Dudley, earl of Leicester. The disturbances she had long fomented in Scotland, having led to the captivity of Mary, that princess at length escaped for refuge into England ; but when Elizabeth discovered that the duke of Norfolk was about to marry her privately, she accused him of treasonable designs, put him to death and imprisoned her rival. Her quiet was greatly disturbed by the puritans, who hated episcopacy and church forms as much as popery ; and while making concessions to them, she was shocked by intelligence of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. The duke d'Alençon, the French king's brother, came to England soon after, and solicited her hand ; but she sent back the enraged prince with a refusal. In 1584, her subjects of all ranks entered into an association to defend her from all attacks, in consequence of a reported attempt on the part of Mary's friends to take her life. Elizabeth defied all such rumours ostensibly, though she secretly took all proper precaution, and acknowledged the affectionate attention of her people.

As Philip of Spain had long threatened an invasion of England, in consequence of Elizabeth's refusal of him for a husband, the queen sent Drake with a large fleet against the Spanish West India islands, and at the same time supported the Dutch provinces in their revolt against Spain ; but she had no sooner sacrificed the unhappy queen of Scotland, than an immense Spanish fleet appeared on the coast. The queen's conduct on this occasion was most heroic ; and it need here only be stated that the ' invincible armada,' as it was styled, was quickly subdued by the prompt valour of the English ships, and the happy coincidence of most boisterous weather. The queen, after this, took great interest in French affairs ; and by means of her favourite, the earl of

Essex, supported Henry IV. in his claim to the throne; conferring personally with the illustrious Sully respecting the fortunes of his master.

Essex in a short time fell into disgrace, and was eventually brought to the scaffold for treasonable designs; and when the dying countess of Nottingham assured the queen that the earl had transmitted to her a ring, which implied his request of pardon, (such ring having been given him by the queen, in case of any emergency, but never returned to her,) Elizabeth became furious with rage, and then sank into a deep melancholy. At length nature was overpowered; and she was urged, on her last bed, to declare her successor. 'Who but our kinsman, the king of Scots?' she said pettishly, but in a low tone of voice; and soon after expired, being then in the seventieth year of her age. She was interred with great splendour at Westminster, in her grandfather's chapel; and the nation's sorrow for her loss was in every way expressed. Taylor, called the water-poet, who was royal bargeman to Charles I. and his queen Henrietta, thus ludicrously expresses himself in an ode upon her death:

'The queen was brought by water to Whitehall:
At every stroke the oars did tears let fall!
More clung about the barge: fish under water
Wept out their eyne of pearl, and swam blind after.
I think the bargemen might, with easier thighs,
Have rowed her thither in her people's eyes;
For, howsoe'en, thus much my thoughts have scanned,—
She had come by water, had she come by land.'

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Rise of the Puritans. The class of reformed persons so denominated, not satisfied with a separation from papal restraints, abominated episcopacy, a regular form of public prayer, and every thing which tended to keep up church-dominion. Their main body was to be found amongst the Scots; and though Elizabeth sent troops to aid Knox, they had no sooner effected all which that zealous reformer required, than the anti-episcopalians, under the name of presbyterians, commenced as fierce an attack upon the advocates of prelacy, as both had made upon the Romish church. This party obtained, in derision, the title of 'puritans,' because of their affecting to live up to the letter of the gospel. They considered one churchman equal to another; and by means of laymen, called lay-elders, whom they admitted to church-offices, they carried on a sort of republican ecclesiastical government, which became the foundation of the present presbyterian church of Scotland. Knox, who had been schooled by Calvin, supported episcopacy.

Presbyterianism was far from being a predominant form of religion in Scotland during the reigns of Elizabeth and the Stuarts. It was a mere faction, and by no means a powerful one; but the determination of the Charles's to bring all to conformity, confirmed it in obstinacy. The solemn league and covenant was entered into, arms were resorted to, much blood was shed, and the names of Cameron, Melville, and others, are registered amongst the great fomenters of division. At the period of the Revolution, the covenanters were numerous and powerful enough to found their church.

Abject state of Abbots. The leading monks of each establishment had been offered an annual compensation of moderate amount, on the breaking up of religious houses by Henry VIII.; but many, who were well-connected, rejected the boon, as a composition with heresy, and not a few, still more inclined to buffet fortune in return, preferred begging their bread, or performing the most menial offices for their subsistence. Many a one who had

lived in luxury, and in the full possession of dignified authority, now condescended to work laboriously for his daily support; in the hope that the church would soon throw off her mourning garb, and shine forth with renewed splendour and magnificence. Although disappointed to the last, they closed their lives with humility and decency; and were the means of good to thousands who, in their more exalted state, would have been deprived of access to them, on occasions beyond the common calls of humanity, in want or sickness. So sensible were many of the reformers of this fact in Elizabeth's time, that excessive alms were granted by them to deprived dignitaries, that they might assist the poor of their districts in their own way; after which, the animosity of the peasantry towards those who had changed their religion, was very rapidly seen to abate.

The Spanish Armada. In July 1588, Philip II., asserting his claim to the throne, sent a numerous fleet, to which he gave the title of the invincible armada, to invade England. To oppose it, 20,000 men were dispersed along the southern coasts; and an army of 22,000 foot and 1000 horse were encamped at Tilbury-fort, in Essex; at which place the queen addressed the soldiers with an animating speech. Another army, of 36,000, was appointed to guard the queen's person; while a considerable fleet under Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, protected the coast, and endeavoured to prevent the prince of Parma, who had an army with him in the Netherlands, joining his force to that of the Spaniards. The blowing up of the English fireships so alarmed the duke of Medina-Sidonia's squadron, that they cut their cables and put to sea again; a flight and a pursuit was the consequence; and as the Spanish ships tried to get home in a northern direction, they were, by a violent storm, driven upon the coast of Ireland and upon the shores of the Western isles; so that, of 160 vessels, only fifty-three returned in safety to Spain. This calamity was sensibly felt

all over Spain, and there was scarcely a family of rank that did not go into mourning for the death of some near relation; insomuch that Philip, dreading the effect which this universal face of sorrow might produce upon the minds of the people, imitated the conduct of the Roman senate after the battle of Cannæ, and published an edict to abridge the time of public mourning.

The Queen's Marriage projected. The parliament had often hinted a wish that Elizabeth should select a partner of her throne, either from foreign courts or from her own nobility. Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, was the queen's first favourite; and when he found her inclined to listen to marriage, he caused his countess to be murdered at Cumnor. Elizabeth, however, disappointed the ambitious peer; though he was afterwards her chief general in opposing the Spanish armada. Ratchliffe, earl of Sussex, had for many years rivalled Leicester in his extraordinary attentions; entertaining the queen in his palace, consulting her on all occasions, and regulating his conduct so as to anticipate her wishes, and to obey her capricious commands. Sussex, however, was regarded merely as a complaisant courtier, and used as such; and he was of too ignoble a spirit to resent this return for his many important services in Ireland and elsewhere. The last favourite of Elizabeth was Robert Devereux, earl of Essex, her chief director of affairs until she had refused to make his friend, Sir George Carew, viceroy of Ireland. The earl went so far as to turn his back upon her in the presence-chamber, whereon she gave him a box on the ear; and he, putting his hand to his sword, declared he would not have taken such an affront even from her father, and angrily quitted the apartment. Though reconciled to her after this, he was soon accused of treasonable designs; and when his words were reported to her, 'that she had grown old and cankered, and that her mind was as crooked as her carcass,' she listened to his enemies, and he was

beheaded. Elizabeth, with astonishing policy, induced more than the parties mentioned to suppose for a time that her hand would be the reward of their devoted services; and thus, unfettered herself, did she pass her long reign, keeping her most influential noblemen in a state more servile than any male ruler could by possibility have done.

The Queen's Progresses. Elizabeth was in the habit of making occasional visits to the houses of her nobility; on which occasions Raleigh, during the period of her favour, was her attendant captain of the guard. These visits were called *progresses*; and though they tended to impoverish many a peer, she frequently repaid the liberality of her entertainers with offices of trust and emolument. When Cecil received her at Theobald's, 1591, it was in expectation of being promoted to the secretaryship; when the earl of Hertford received her at Elvetham, the magnificence he displayed was not thought by him too high a price to regain her favour, which had been long withdrawn. When Sir Julius Cæsar had entertained her at his house at Mitcham one whole day and night, at a cost of 700*l.*, he received his appointment of master of St. Katherine's hospital, and was made judge of the admiralty. Secretary Cecil received twelve visits from the queen, each of which royal favours cost him nearly 3000*l.*; nor did she hesitate to remain at his house a month, receiving ambassadors, and being entertained as bountifully as if she had been in one of her own palaces.

The Poor-laws established. When the monasteries were suppressed at the reformation, the unemployed poor, who had been used to derive their support from them, were left destitute. To remedy this evil, the parliament gave power to the justices to lay a general assessment 1571; and by subsequent acts it was ordained, that the churchwardens and overseers of parishes, with the consent of two justices, one of whom is of the *quorum* (that is who has had a defined legal

experience, and possesses a greater estate than the rest, shall be empowered to raise weekly, or otherwise, by taxation of every inhabitant, whether parson, vicar, or other, materials for employing the poor, and competent sums for their relief.

The sums thus levied for the poor, at first small, have in our day become enormous; and the demands are increasing with a rapidity that gives rise to the most serious and well-grounded apprehensions. The new poor-law bill of 1835 will, it is hoped, abate the mischief, and benefit the condition of the lower classes, without offering, as the ancient code has done, a premium to idleness and dishonesty. Under any form of government whatever, the compulsory support of the poor, without reference to religious motives, is a political evil, notwithstanding the necessity that now exists in England for upholding the system; for when we have acknowledged the legal right of the pauper to a portion of the property of the wealthy, we have admitted a precedent, so far attended with danger, that the poor may eventually decide for themselves what share they will accept from the purses of the affluent. The baneful consequence of the poor-laws in this country has been the breaking of the links which in days of yore bound together the higher and lower classes; links firmly cemented by the favour, protection, and good will of the former, and by the respect, the gratitude, and the fidelity of the latter. Charity by act of parliament has dissolved this valuable social compact; and from the one party bestowing with reluctance, and the other receiving the gift as a right, a repulsive feeling is excited between those who have money and those who have none; the reverse of what the beneficence of both God and man demand.

According to recent estimates, the paupers of England and Wales amount to 2,000,000, and the poor-rate raised per annum to 8,000,000

sterling. In Scotland and in Ireland there are no poor-laws.

Two Plagues in Europe 1593 and

1597, which swept off 46,000 in London alone.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 1572. Charles IX. of France, on the ground that the Huguenots (as the protestants in his kingdom were called), were continually plotting against his life, was urged by his mother, Catherine de Medicis, to allow a general massacre of that people. The horrid scheme was put under the direction of the duke of Guise, the declared enemy of protestantism; who himself first attacked the house of admiral Coligni in Paris. The defenceless man was instantly murdered by one of the party, and an indiscriminate assassination of the Huguenots, and of those who were believed to favour them, took place. The carnage was by no means confined to Paris: for orders had been sent privately to the provincial cities, to do the like on the same day, the eve of St. Bartholomew; so that in two months, no less than 30,000 protestants were slain. The term Huguenot was borrowed from the German *ciguots*, confederates, originally applied to such Genevese as defended their rights against Charles, duke of Savoy.

The Battle of Lepanto, 1571, in which the Turks lost all their navy, was gained by Don John of Austria, admiral Doria being his chief captain. The force on each side was immense; and the loss of the Turks 32,000 slain, and 3500 prisoners, with 161 galleys sunk, and sixty taken. It is considered to have been one of the most remarkable sea-fights in history.

The Dutch Republic founded. The Netherlands, or Low Countries, including the modern Holland and Belgium, being a Spanish possession, the duke of Alva was sent by Philip II. to settle the disturbances which were constantly occurring there on the score of religion. The protestant tenets had gained great ground; and Alva established a sort of inquisition to put

them down, when William, prince of Orange-Nassau, one of the most influential nobles, aided by counts Hoon and Egmont, took up arms, and succeeded, 1579, after a lengthened struggle, in separating seven of the provinces from Spanish dominion. These, by a league called the union of Utrecht, were erected into a republic, by the title of the Seven United Provinces, or *Holland*, from the name of one of the seven. Hoon and Egmont were unhappily taken by the Spaniards and beheaded, but the prince of Orange-Nassau escaped; though he fell by the hand of an assassin named Gerrard, 1584, when his son Maurice was, out of gratitude for the father's services, elected, at the early age of eighteen, to be stadtholder, or chief of the state councils. This office remained hereditarily to the Orange family, until the stadtholder's elevation to sovereign power, 1814. The Belgic provinces had equally joined in the insurrection, but were subdued by the prince of Parma, the brother-in-law of Philip II., and afterwards added to Austria.

Death of Sebastian of Portugal. Muley Hamet, king of Morocco, had been dispossessed of his dominions by his uncle, Muley Moloch. At the beginning of the affair, Sebastian, king of Portugal, who burned with a desire to signalize himself against the infidels, had offered Hamet his assistance, but had been scornfully answered by the Moor; but the latter at length solicited his aid in the most submissive terms. Philip of Spain, and all the best advisers of Sebastian, laboured in vain to dissuade him from the enterprise; and, convinced that he should eclipse all his predecessors in glory, he set sail, June 1577, for Africa, with a fleet of nearly 1000 ships. In the battle which ensued, Hamet was drowned; and Moloch, who com-

manded his own troops, though in an ill state of health, fell from his horse, and in a few moments after expired. The Moors, however, had the best of the contest, and actually surrounded the whole Portuguese force; killing Sebastian, while they were contending whose prisoner he should be, and either putting to death, or carrying into slavery, the flower of his nobility. Portugal, after this event, from being one of the most eminent nations of Europe, sank into the lowest rank of states; and Philip II. of Spain was enabled to add it to his dominions, 1580.

The Edict of Nantes was issued by Henry IV. of France, 1598, to protect the protestants in his dominions from the fury of their catholic brethren.

Spain and Portugal under Philip II. Upon the abdication of his father, Charles V., he succeeded to Spain, but not to Germany. He obtained the battle of St. Quentin, 1557, and, had he pursued his victory, might have conquered France. Charles, on hearing of the battle, asked if his son were in Paris; and being answered in the negative, turned his back with contempt on the messenger. Violent in his measures, Philip lost the affections of the Flemings; and though Alva, by valour and severity, attempted to restore subordination, seven provinces were severed from the Spanish yoke, and established their independence. Philip subdued Portugal, and formed plans for the subjection of England, which the death of his wife, Mary, had placed under the administration of Elizabeth; but we have seen how his armada was defeated. When he heard of that misfortune, he replied with a calmness which it was usual for him to display when in difficulties, 'The Lord's will be done! I sent my fleet against the English, and not against the winds: I thank God it is no worse.' Philip, who was considered by one party a Tiberius in ferocity, and by another a Solomon in discretion, was doubtless a man of great sagacity, the patron of men of merit,

and the most important continental monarch of his time.

France under Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV., 1559 to 1610. *Francis II.*, the youthful husband of Mary of Scotland, died one year after his accession, aged seventeen. As his brother, *Charles IX.* was but eleven on coming to the throne, his mother, Catherine of Medicis, ruled for him. With a view to lessen the influence of the Guise family, she aided the Huguenots for a time; even releasing their leader, the prince of Condé, from his imprisonment. A dreadful civil war ensued: but a compact having been entered into between the queen's party and the Guises, Catherine treacherously invited to Paris all the Huguenots of rank to witness the marriage of her daughter, Margaret, with the young king of Navarre, the Protestant general. In three days after their arrival, the horrible butchery of St. Bartholomew took place. Not long after this event, Charles was succeeded by his brother, *Henry III.*, 1574; who had to contend with a new party of the Huguenots under his own brother, the duc d'Alençon, and the king of Navarre. As terms were soon made with the insurgents, the Catholics took umbrage, and formed what they called *The League*, having the duke of Guise at its head. The Huguenots were now attacked in every direction; and even the king's person was seized, on account of the favour he had shown the heretics. Henry, however, contrived to entrap the duke of Guise, and assassinate him at Blois; for which deed Clement, a monk, having entered the royal presence soon after, under the plea of presenting letters, stabbed the monarch in the stomach, 1589. The king of Navarre, now that the house of Valois was extinct, was called to succeed, as *Henry IV.* Having been so distinguished a leader amongst the Huguenots, he was attacked instantly on his accession by the army of the League under the duke de Mayenne; but he defeated it

both at Arques and Ivry. With the hope of ending the divisions in the kingdom, Henry at length declared himself a Catholic; but violent commotions often occurred afterwards, and the monarch was at last stabbed in his coach, 1610, by one Ravallac, who would not assign any reason for the deed. The king was very generally lamented, and has been deservedly styled *Great*. He had endeared himself to men of all parties by his humanity, affability, and patriotic virtues; and when his council constantly urged him to harsh measures, he would exclaim 'that a spoonful of honey would catch more flies than a whole hoghead of vinegar.'

Scotland under Mary. The unfortunate daughter of James V. succeeded him eight days after her birth; and receiving her education in France, as the future queen of that country, she imbibed there those principles of levity, which eventually imbittered her life. Upon the early death of her husband the dauphin, she left with tears of regret the country in which, as the sequel proved, the happiest portion of her days had been passed; and on her arrival in Scotland, found her subjects agitated by party spirit, and in a state bordering upon anarchy. She discovered too a powerful rival in her neighbour, Elizabeth; whom she had enraged by assuming, when in France, the empty title of queen of England. By publicly celebrating the mass in her chapel, Mary offended the feelings of her subjects, now almost universally rigid presbyterians; and who, in their zeal for the reformation, had spared neither cathedrals, nor abbeys, nor monuments, which bore the marks of popish superstition. To protect herself from fanatical violence, therefore, she married Henry lord Darnley, a youth of weak mind, with whom she soon disagreed; and when, out of jealousy, that nobleman had assassinated, in her presence, David Rizzio, a musician, to whom she was in the habit of opening her mind, an entire separation from him ensued. The

blowing up of Darnley's house by gunpowder soon after, and the consequent death of that peer, was attributed to Mary; though the earl of Bothwell, who had succeeded in obtaining her favour, and who forcibly married her, was more probably the guilty party. Bothwell, hated by the nobles, fled soon after to Denmark; while Mary was compelled by Murray, the regent, to resign the crown to her son, James VI. The queen, incarcerated in Lochleven island, escaped thence to England, and implored the protection of Elizabeth, who, as has been seen, kept her a prisoner, and in the end deprived her of life.

Execution of Mary Stuart, 1587. The earls of Shrewsbury and Kent, on their arrival at Fotheringhay castle, were introduced to Mary, and told her to prepare for death at eight on the ensuing morning. She expressed surprise rather than terror at the intelligence; and having stated that death would be most welcome to her, requested her confessor might attend her without delay. With much want of feeling, this was denied her; whereupon, with calmness, she ordered supper to be prepared, observing that it was necessary to take sustenance, lest a failure of her bodily strength should affect her mind on the morrow. Her attendants during the repast could not help weeping, when they reflected upon the awful situation of their mistress; but at the end of it, she cheerfully requested each of them to take wine with her, which they did upon their knees. She then asked their pardon for all her offences towards them; while they, in return, amidst a plentiful effusion of tears, solicited her forgiveness in like manner. Having perused her will, and distributed portions of her jewels amongst those about her person, she went to bed, slept quietly for some hours, and then rose to perform by herself the last offices of religion, administering to herself the consecrated host with which pope Pius had furnished her, in case

she should be denied the assistance of a priest. Towards morning, she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet; and when the sheriff announced to her that the hour was come, she replied that she was ready, and followed him, leaning on two of the soldiers. In passing through the hall, the two earls and other officers received her; and some minutes were occupied in the painful farewell she was compelled to take of her steward, Sir Andrew Melville, who threw himself on his knees in her way, wringing his hands, and weeping bitterly. A few of her servants were, after a great deal of solicitation, permitted to be with the unhappy queen to the last. She was not at all affected when, upon entering the room allotted for her death, she saw the executioners, the black hangings, and the fatal axe; but she was moved with indignation when the dean of Peterborough endeavoured to make her abjure the errors of her faith, and again and again answered with great earnestness, 'I was born in this religion, I have lived in it, and in

it I will die!' The earl of Kent reproved her for keeping a crucifix in her hand: she only meekly upbraided him, and proceeded to unrobe. Her servants, on seeing her ready to lay her head upon the block, suddenly burst into tears and convulsive sobbings; but she put her finger to her lip, to enjoin their silence. Having desired one of them to cover her eyes with a handkerchief, she knelt down; and at two strokes her head was severed from her body.

The Reformation spread to Scotland. John Knox, who had been chaplain to Edward VI., was with Calvin at Geneva when Mary succeeded; and that ardent reformer pressed his return to Scotland, 1555. Before his death, 1572, he had perfected the change of religion in Scotland; and his funeral was honoured with the presence of Morton the regent, and other nobles. Like many others of the reformers, he was a persecutor, and even appeared as the defender of the assassination of cardinal Beatoun.

EMINENT PERSONS.

William Shakspeare, who in originality, conception, force, and delineation, has surpassed the poets of every age and country, was the son of a woolcomber at Stratford-on-Avon, at the grammar-school of which place he received the rudiments of education. He imprudently married the daughter of a neighbouring farmer at seventeen; and being accused of deer-stealing in the park of Sir Thomas Lucy, of Charlecote, he wrote a ballad upon the baronet with satirical bitterness, and fled to London. Here he enrolled himself amongst a company of players; but finding neither sock nor buskin fit him, he turned his attention to play-writing. His productions became popular; Henry IV. was played before Elizabeth, and the queen, delighted with the character of Falstaff, expressed a wish to have him represented in love. Shakspeare hereupon wrote his 'Merry Wives of Windsor,' and went on increasing in fame and

fortune. At length, satisfied with his gains, he retired to his native town, and there resided till his death (aged fifty-two, 1616) in a house which he had built, called New Place.—*Spenser*, the laureate of Elizabeth, was presented by lord Grey de Wilton with 3000 acres of land in Ireland, where he wrote his celebrated 'Faery Queene;' but, in a rebellion, he lost his estate, and died broken-hearted in London.—*Sir Philip Sidney*, an accomplished scholar, poet, and statesman, was greatly celebrated in his day for his 'Arcadia,' a romance, partly prose and partly poetical, containing much exalted sentiment, imagination, and general knowledge of mankind.—*Cammoens*, the Portuguese Virgil, lost one of his eyes in a campaign against the Moors at Ceuta; and going to the East Indies to better his fortune, wrote, in a cavern near Macao, his celebrated 'Lusiad,' a work distinguished for the bold-

ness of its descriptions, and the happiest flights of a sublime imagination.—*Tasso*, the illustrious Italian poet, whose 'Jerusalem Delivered' abounds with pleasing descriptions of tender scenes, and animated representations of battles, couched in that simply majestic style which so captivates and overpowers in the pages of Homer and Virgil. The poet was so imprudent as to attach himself to the sister of his patron, Alphonso of Ferrara : a circumstance which led to his long imprisonment by the duke as a madman ; but when restored to liberty, his fame spread rapidly, and it was determined to crown him with laurel in the capitol. While preparations were making for the ceremony, *Tasso* was seized with a mortal illness, and died on the evening before the intended coronation, 1595.—*Buchanan*, a Scottish poet, and the preceptor of our James I., who revived, during a barbarous age, the beauties and sublimities of the Roman muse, and wrote the history of his country. His Latin version of the Psalms of David is well known, and his tragedy of *Jeppitha* was once deservedly admired. As he had embraced the tenets of Luther, he was long persecuted by Cardinal Beatoun.

Roger Ascham, who had been tutor to Henry VIII.'s family, and to whom Elizabeth was indebted for her classical knowledge. He never had higher preferment than a stall in York cathedral, was an amiable and unambitious man, and wrote Latin with Ciceronian elegance. His 'Schoolmaster,' to point out the best modes of education, is a valuable book ; and his maxim, ' that there is no royal road to learning,' which he first broached to king Henry, when he wished him to hurry his children along the path of education, though often controverted (especially in our own day, so rife with new and fallacious schemes of instruction), has never been refuted. The scholar's road is long, arduous, and beset with difficulties and obstacles, which time and labour, hard labour, alone can overcome.

Michael Angelo, renowned both as

a painter and sculptor of Italy. Unable to pay his reckoning once at an alehouse, (for he was a great tippler, and fond of low society), he painted the landlord's sign afresh, and that in so finished a style, that it brought the owner a considerable sum.—*Paul Veronese*, of Verona, a painter considered superior to all other artists in the grace of his female figures. His *Marriage of Cana* is his best work.—*Titian*, also an Italian, patronized by Charles V., who declared his pictures to be above price. They are admirable for their colouring, drapery, delicacy, and correctness. The best are, *The Last Supper*, *Christ crowned with thorns*, a *Portrait of himself*, and a *Female combing her hair*.

Crichton, called the admirable, for his general learning and accomplishments. He was a Scotsman of good family, and travelled over Europe, beating all men in disputation, and unstudied eloquence. He was mortally stabbed in the street by night by some men in masks at Mantua.—*Cardua*, an Italian physician and astrologer, who wrote on many subjects, and was so eccentric as to whip his own legs, and bite his own lips and fingers, to suppress the sallies of his imagination.

—*Tycho Brahe*, the celebrated Danish astronomer, who spent his great talents in endeavouring to establish a new system of the universe, in opposition to the Copernican. He was patronized by his own sovereign, until he tired of his eccentricities, when the emperor received him at Prague, and gave him a liberal pension. He died at Prague 1601.

Bishop Jewel. Having been compelled on Edward's death, when rector of Sunningwell, to subscribe to a confession of faith drawn up by the catholics, he fled to the continent, and recanted ; and Elizabeth, on her accession, made him bishop of Sarum. The remainder of his life was spent in advocating protestantism ; and his admirable ' *Apology for the Church of England*,' written in elegant Latin, effected perhaps as much for the reformation as any other instrument, moral or political. Jewel's memory was singularly tena-

cious; and when an Oxford scholar, he could exactly repeat whatever he had written, after one reading. During the ringing of the chapel-bell, he committed to memory a sermon by once rapidly reading it through; and he pronounced it afterwards without hesitation. His custom was to write down the heads of his discourses, and imprint them so firmly upon his mind, that he used to say, 'if 10,000 people were quarrelling or fighting all the while he was preaching, they could not put him out.'

Cecil, Lord Burleigh, lord treasurer of England twenty-seven years; who, while he managed, with honest frugality, the revenues of the kingdom under Elizabeth, disdained, with inflexible integrity, to amass money by base means.—*Sir Francis Drake*, whose whole life was devoted to the sea; first in circumnavigating the globe, and then in the various maritime wars of Elizabeth.—*The Duc de Sully*, the friend and minister of Henry the Great, distinguished himself as a soldier; but it was in the cabinet that his real superiority appeared. Raised to the office of prime-minister, he exerted himself for the prosperity of his country: the taxes were collected without oppression, and all impositions were abolished. Though often thwarted in his views by the intrigues of courtiers, he remained firm to his principles. He rose every morning at four; and after devoting some time to business, gave audience to such as solicited an admission to him, and never rejected the meanest person from his presence. It was Sully who prevailed upon his master to become a catholic, in order to pacify the turbulent people; but when solicited himself to abandon the protestant tenets, he refused, and replied to the pope, who flattered him upon the greatness of his abilities, 'I never shall cease to pray for the conversion of your holiness.' After the murder of Henry, he was disgraced; and when recalled by Louis XIII., he recommended the banishment of the buffoons and flat-

terers of the court. His *Economies Royales* contain a very minute detail of the court-history. A singular adventure happened to Sully during the battle of Ivry, before alluded to. He had been severely wounded in the thigh, and had fainted; and on coming to himself, found he was alone. Unable to walk, he remained on the ground until a peasant passed with a pony. This he purchased, and had no sooner been lifted upon the animal, than, to his dismay, he saw food of the enemy advancing towards him, carrying the banner of the League. When riding up to him, they demanded his name, Sully considered his fate sealed; but, to his surprise, they yielded themselves prisoners to him; and a detachment of his own troops coming up, he found that a signal victory had been gained by the French.

Louis Cornaro, a Venetian noble who wrote a book to show how, by lowering his diet to twelve ounces of solid animal and vegetable food, and fourteen ounces of liquid daily, he restored his health (which had been wholly given over by his physicians at forty), and lived to 100. He curiously tells that, when advised at eighty, by his anxious friends, to add four ounces to his daily allowance, he fell into a fever, which he recovered only by returning to his accustomed quantity of food. Cornaro's case would seem to establish one fact connected with the animal economy; namely, that it is far more necessary to pay attention to the quantity than to the quality of food, for the preservation of health.

Simon Symonds, vicar of Bray, had kept his benefice during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary, by constantly making concessions to the party in power. He was twice a protestant, and twice a papist; and when reproached for his apostacy, replied, that he had always resolved to die vicar of Bray. He expired in the forty-first year of Elizabeth, in possession of his living; and his conduct in

adhering constantly to the stronger side | is about a mile distant from Maiden-
has now passed into a proverb. Bray | head, Berks.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The New Style introduced in Italy by pope Gregory XIII., 1582; whereby that year lost ten days. It was observed that, by the introduction of bissextile days into the calendar by the Cæsars, a difference had arisen to the amount of ten whole days in the course of time, owing to the odd minutes and seconds exceeding, in each bissextile year, the true period of the sun's progress. The only method of correcting this was to give up ten days of any one year; and Gregory proposed that, in 1582, March should have only twenty-one days, the eleventh being called the twenty-first; and also that in future, three days should be omitted in every 400 years, as the means of keeping correct time with the sun. This mode of reckoning was not used in England until 1752, nor is it yet admitted by the Russians. *Bissextile* is from the Latin. Julius Cæsar first ordained that every fourth year should consist of 366 days; and this he effected by making two twenty-third days of February. The twenty-third of February was the sixth Kalendas Martii, that is *sextus*: and this *sextus* being doubled produced the *bis-sextile* year, or *twice-sixth-kalend-of-March-year*.

Westminster School founded 1560, by the queen, for forty scholars; who receive an education preparatory for the university. As in the other public schools, many private scholars are also educated, sons of the nobility and gentry; so that the number of pupils is at present 300 at least. The boys on the foundation wear the academical dress, to distinguish them from the rest.

Merchant Tailors' School founded by Sir Thomas White, 1561. This has no foundation beyond the masterships, every boy, for his classical education (which he obtains by a daily visit to the school), having eight guineas per

year to pay, and 5*l.* 2*s.* on entrance. The number of pupils is limited to 250; and there are many university exhibitions.

Harrow School founded, 1571, by John Lyon, for the free education of all natives of Harrow; but as few have ever availed themselves of the privilege, the masters of the foundation have boarded the sons of noblemen and gentlemen, to the amount of between 300 and 400; all the university privileges being bestowed on those selected by the head-master, who has five assistants. To encourage archery, a silver arrow used annually to be contended for, by the will of the founder; but public speeches are now substituted for that display.

The Telescope invented, 1590, by Jansen, a German spectacle-maker.—*Knives, Paper, and Woven Stockings* first made in England.—*Watches and Tobacco* first imported; the former from Germany, the latter from Virginia by Raleigh.—*The Royal Exchange*, London, for the daily assembling of merchants to settle their affairs, founded by Sir Thomas Gresham. This venerable structure fell a sacrifice to fire, 1838.—*The East India and Turkey Companies*, for an exclusive trade by certain English merchants to each of those countries, instituted and incorporated.—*The British Whale Fishery* at Spitzbergen established.—*The first Lottery* allowed in England.—*Tulips* first brought to England. So absurdly violent was the taste for this flower, in its improved state, at the close of the eighteenth century, that so much as 100 guineas was given on several occasions for a single plant.—*Parochial Registers* first ordered to be kept of the births, &c. in each parish.—*The Thirty-nine Articles* promulgated as the rule of faith of the church of England.—*The Oxford Library rebuilt*, and filled with books by Sir Thomas

Bodley.—*Trinity College, Dublin*, founded.—*Virginia*, in North America, colonized by Sir Walter Raleigh, and so named in honour of the queen. The whole coast had been called by Cabot, Newfoundland; a name now only given to an island in the neighbourhood.—*Physic Gardens* first constructed in England, to supply apothecaries. These are now carried on in various parts of the kingdom on a large scale, on the principles of farming, especially at Mitcham, in Surrey; where the plantations of Major Moore have been long celebrated for their extent and valuable produce.—*Saint Helena* colonized by England, 1600. It is now the well-known resting-place of British ships passing to and from India; and is sufficiently distinguished by the imprisonment and death of Buonaparte within its rocky precincts.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1520,

Solyman II.; 1566, Selim I.; 1574, Amurath III.; 1595, Mahomet III.; 1603, Achmet I. *Popes*. 1555, Paul IV.; 1559, Pius IV.; 1566, Pius V.; 1572, Gregory XIII.; 1585, Sixtus V.; 1590, Urban VII. and Gregory XIV.; 1591, Innocent IX.; 1592, Clement VIII. *Scotland*. 1542, Mary Stuart; 1567, James VI. *France*. 1547, Henry II.; 1559, Francis II.; 1560, Charles IX.; 1574, Henry III.; 1589, Henry IV. *Sweden*. 1523, Gustavus Vasa; 1560, Eric XIV.; 1568, John III.; 1592, Sigismund of Poland. *Denmark and Norway*. 1534, Christian III.; 1559, Frederick II.; 1588, Christian IV. *Portugal*. 1557, Sebastian; 1578, Henry I.; 1580, subdued by Spain. *Germany*. 1519, Charles V.; 1559, Ferdinand I. 1564, Maximilian II.; 1576, Rodolphus II. *Spain and Portugal*. 1555, Philip II.; 1598, Philip III.

ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.

The rule of the Tudors, beyond the great work of the reformation, was, on the whole, productive of good to the nation. Their unbounded use of the royal prerogative, whereby they founded a more absolute monarchy than any early king, ever surrounded by jealous barons, had been able to establish, served to give solidity to the councils of the state; to keep down that spirit of faction which had caused so much bloodshed and such insecurity of property in the preceding reigns; and to carry into effect, with the requisite promptitude, all measures which it was found necessary to take, either for offence or defence. Of all the Tudor sovereigns, Elizabeth was the most arbitrary. The power of parliament in her reign was a mere shadow. She scrupled not to forbid its interference with matters either of church or state; and was accustomed to imprison such members as dared to disobey the injunction. Supplies she raised without its authority, by exacting loans and benevolences from the people, and by the sale of privileges of exclusive trade; while she made laws, and those some-

times of the most oppressive and absurd kind, by means of proclamations and royal decrees alone. Disliking the smell of woad, used by the dyers, she prohibited the cultivation of the plant; and, though herself so capricious in dress, as to appear each day in a different habit, she authorized officers to go about the streets, and break every gentleman's sword, and cut down every ruff, which respectively exceeded a defined length and depth. Commerce and navigation were encouraged by all the Tudor family, but especially by Elizabeth, who was highly sensible that the defence of her kingdom depended on its naval power; but with all the diligence of the latter to augment the number of ships of war, her whole fleet contained at best but 774 guns! The population of England in her reign was only 900,000; of whom 80,000 were soldiers, either acting as militia, or in the active services of war. The state of manufactures was low; and Elizabeth was the first female who obtained silk stockings: foreign wares had always a marked preference amongst the people.

The art of painting began to be patronized, after the favour shown to Holbein by Henry VIII. The drama assumed nearly its present form in the reign of Elizabeth; thus superseding the mysteries and moralities, till then enacted by the monks in the churches, on festival occasions. One of these mysteries was entitled, 'Candlemas; or, the Killing of the Children of Israel.' The houses in Elizabeth's time began to be ornamented with oaken panels, carved in grotesque fashion by Norman artists, of which numerous specimens are still to be seen. The rooms were not carpeted, but the floors were neatly joined without the aid of nails; while the fire was upon the hearth, commonly without dogs, or other sort of grate. The walls of the best houses were only of wattling, plastered over with various materials; while the supporters of the roof were

whole trees, denuded of their boughs in the rudest manner. Learning was patronized by all the Tudors on its revival; and Henry VIII., his three children, lady Jane Grey, and queen Catherine Parr, all figured as authors. The dress of the people during the time of the Tudors, especially in the reign of Elizabeth, was singular indeed, according to our present notions. The court of Henry VIII. all imitated his corpulent figure, by stuffing out their habiliments; in Edward's short reign, closer dresses, with yellow stockings, and caps instead of hats, were worn by the men; in Mary's time, the farthingale, or hooped petticoat, was introduced by the ladies from Spain; and Elizabeth having adopted the plaited ruff as the clothing of the neck, both sexes loyally imitated her example, and carried the fashion to an egregious excess.

PERIOD THE SIXTEENTH.

The House of Stuart.

1603 TO 1714—111 YEARS.

SECTION I.

JAMES I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1603 TO 1625—22 YEARS.

Personal History. James I. was son of Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, and queen Mary of Scotland, and was born at Edinburgh castle, June 1556, when his mother was at variance with her husband. He was of the middle stature, inclining to corpulency; his forehead was high, his beard scanty. His address was awkward; and he had less of manly dignity than had been usually seen amongst English sovereigns. He was temperate in habits, kind to his servants, and desirous of acquiring the love of his subjects. He was commonly averse from cruelty and injustice; and therefore his conduct to the great Raleigh stands forth an anomalous point in his character: to Raleigh he was highly cruel, highly unjust. He was not destitute either of abilities, or good intentions; but his abilities were not those of a king, and his intentions were too often defeated by pliability, and unmanly attachments. His reign was prosperous, because peace was his main object; but his country lost ground in the opinion of other nations, and her influence over them was much lessened. He received much adulation for his literary acquirements; but he merits far more as an encourager of learning. Perhaps much of the weakness of his character

was attributable to the commencement of his life. Constantly kept in doubt as to the security of his Scottish throne, the attachment of his advisers, and the loyalty of his people, who were divided by two religions, and harassed by factions, he was led to conceal his opinions, and to act without candour. In the stormy times which followed his mother's marriage with Bothwell, he had been, as an infant, committed to the care of the earl of Mar; and his mother being compelled to resign the crown, all public acts henceforth ran in his name. His childhood, therefore, was passed in commotion, and even civil war, under the regencies of Murray, Mar, and Morton; during which time he resided in Stirling castle, under the tuition of Buchanan. From the first he appears to have imbibed those exalted notions of royal prerogative, which proved so great a snare to his posterity. Some injudicious measures, in the spirit of these opinions, early produced a conspiracy of the nobles against him, and in 1582 they seized his person at Ruthven castle. A new confederacy, however, effected his liberation; and he again put himself under the sway of his favourite, the earl of Arran. The policy of Elizabeth, whose apprehensions from the catholics in favour of Mary led her to employ every art to keep up a dissatisfied party in Scotland, was signally assisted by the violent measures of Arran against the connexions of the recent conspirators, many of whom fled to England. When, however, it became apparent that the life of his mother was in danger from the sentence of an English judicature, James, who had hitherto treated her very irreverently, felt himself called upon to interfere. He wrote a menacing letter to Elizabeth, appealed to other courts, and assembled his nobles, to prevent that queen's injustice. When the news of his parent's death arrived, he prepared for hostilities; but so poor were his resources, that he found it requisite to remain at peace, to reconcile the feuds of his nobility, and even to aid Elizabeth in her resistance to Philip and his armada. The Scots entered into a solemn covenant, on this occasion, to support the cause of protestantism. In 1600 happened an event which has never been satisfactorily accounted for. The king was upon a hunting-excursion, when he was invited by the brother of Ruthven, earl of Gowrie, to the earl's house at Perth. Here he was led to a remote chamber, on pretence of having a secret communicated to him; when he found a man in complete armour, who put a dagger to his breast, and threatened him with immediate death, without assigning any cause for so atrocious a deed. His attendants becoming roused by his cries, entered, and slew both the armed man and the earl's brother; when it was discovered that the former was the earl himself. James, by his wife Anne of Denmark, had seven children, two only of whom survived him, although Henry Frederick, prince of Wales, his eldest son, lived until eighteen. The survivors were *Elizabeth*, married to Frederick V. count-palatine of the Rhine, and king of Bohemia, whose daughter Sophia was the mother of George I., and *Charles I.*

Political History. The king of Scotland was received with universal acclamations on his arrival in London. There was something elevating to the pride of the people when they saw their ancient enemy conquered, as it were, against his will, his country added to their own, and his own throne left desolate for the superior splendour of theirs. After the almost tyrannical rule of the Tudors, the nobility considered that a character such as James's would enable them to resume their former authority; and that, as he had been educated without state, he would be compelled to bow to the superior breeding of his new subjects. One of his first acts was to bestow a profusion of honours and titles on both Scotch and English; he then exhibited his skill in theological dispute, by deciding the controversy between the bishops of the English

church, and the leading puritans. Having assembled the parties at Hampton Court, he boldly declared that, as the destruction of episcopacy would endanger the monarchy, he should give as little aid to puritanism, either in England or Scotland, as was possible. He displayed a degree of authority in the presence of his first parliament which that assembly had little anticipated; and as he carried one or two measures of some importance to his prerogative, he was ever afterwards looked upon by the commons with jealousy.

But the dissatisfaction of James's catholic subjects in England was soon expressed in a most unjustifiable manner. They had expected, from the lenity he had shown to their brethren in Scotland, and from his known private attachment to the ancient form of faith, that he would openly declare in their favour, to the abolition of protestantism; but when they found him rigidly put in execution the laws made against them, they organized the celebrated Gunpowder Plot, to destroy both him and the parliament. As the legislator of Ireland, James's character stands high; and the code which he framed for that kingdom does infinite honour to his judgment and capacity. He abolished many absurd customs and laws, substituting English ones in their place; declared the people free citizens, and gave them a regular administration both military and civil.

In 1612, the king lost his eldest son, Henry, prince of Wales, at the age of eighteen, a youth of great promise; and in the next year married his daughter, Elizabeth, to the elector-palatine; an eventful match, which, in a century, gave another dynasty to the British throne. About this time, the object of the foolish passion of James for handsome favourites and advisers, without regard to virtue or abilities, was Robert Carr, a Scotch youth, whom he raised from a court page to the earldom of Somerset. The scandalous murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, by the machinations of this minion and his infamous countess (because he had endeavoured to prevent the divorce of the latter from the earl of Essex, her husband, to marry Carr), put an end to the king's partiality; though, without regard to justice, he executed the agents of the horrible assassination, and pardoned the principals. The fate of Somerset paved the way for the similar rise of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, who went beyond Carr, both in favour, and the rewards attached to it.

But no circumstance in this reign operated more to the king's discredit, than the treatment received by Raleigh. James is affirmed to have acted thus harshly to conciliate the Spaniards, whom Raleigh had incensed by his Guiana expedition; and, as prince Charles was to be united to the infanta of Spain, the king hoped so great a sacrifice would ensure that important object. The marriage, however, did not take place; and the close of the reign was signalized by those violent contests between the king and parliament, which prepared mighty evils for his successor. James was also much disquieted by the misfortunes of his son-in-law, the elector-palatine; who, having been induced to accept the crown of Bohemia, and to head the protestant interests in Germany, was stripped of his dominions by the emperor. Intelligence of the defeat of a force sent by James against Spain and Germany, in behalf of the elector, is supposed to have brought on a fever, of which he died, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. He was buried in Westminster-abbey.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Gunpowder Plot, 1605. Carr opened his intention to Piercy, of tesby, a gentleman of an ancient family, first suggested the measure; and Piercy talked of merely killing the

king, Catesby observed, that were the royal family extinguished, the nobility, gentry, and parliament, being infected with the same heresy, would raise to the throne another prince equally determined on their fall. He therefore proposed laying a train of gunpowder beneath the building in which the houses met; and to appoint a few, on whom reliance could be placed, to ignite the same, after hiring a vault which ran under the hall of assembly, and was then occupied by a coal-dealer. Thirty-six barrels of powder were conveyed into it by night; and when the whole had been covered with faggots, the doors of the cellar were flung boldly open, and people were allowed to enter, as if nothing dangerous were there. It is remarkable that all this took place nearly a year and a half before the day on which the parliament was appointed to assemble; and that, although more than twenty persons were intrusted with the secret, no fear of detection or punishment, and no hope of reward, had induced any one of the conspirators to make a discovery of the plot. A wish to save, however, such of the catholic lords as might attend the parliament, induced some one of the party, only ten days before the opening, to advise lord Monteagle, by an anonymous epistle, of the danger which would attend his appearance in his place. Monteagle, not knowing how to interpret the letter, took it to lord Salisbury, who was secretary of state, and that lord carried it to the king.

James, with a sagacity peculiar to him, at once conjectured the nature of the plot; and, so sure was he that gunpowder was to be employed, that instant search was commanded to be made in the cellars alluded to. The earl of Suffolk found large piles of faggots in the place, and a man standing in a corner, with a dark lantern, who said he was Percy's servant, and that the wood was the property of his master, and to be consumed in his fires during the winter. Suffolk

quitted the cellar without remark, and at midnight sent Sir Thomas Knevet, a justice of peace, with proper assistants, to make further search. They found the same man (the celebrated Guy Fawkes) standing before the door of the vault; and soon discovered the barrels of powder. On seizing Fawkes, matches for firing the train were found in his pocket; whereupon he boldly expressed his regret 'that he had lost the opportunity of sweetening his own death by that of his enemies;' though, after a day or two's confinement, he gave up the names of his employers. The king was now blamed for not extending the punishment of death far beyond the circle of the immediate conspirators; and so openly was he charged with favouring, by this clemency, the catholic party, and so violent were the puritans on the occasion, that he was scarcely withheld from attempting a restoration of the former religion, by a league with the pope, and the catholic sovereigns of Europe. The conspiracy was discovered November 5th, 1605, the anniversary of which memorable day bids fair to be observed in this country for ages to come.

On the arrest of Fawkes, such of the conspirators as were at the time in London, fled to Dunchurch to meet Catesby; and the whole party, about twenty persons, having confessed themselves to Hammond, a priest, received absolution, partook of the sacrament, and rode on to lord Windsor's, at Hewell. From this house they took a quantity of armour and weapons, and by night reached the residence of Stephen Lyttleton, called Holbeach-house, two miles from Stourbridge; where Walshe, high sheriff of Worcestershire, arrived early on the following morning, with a competent force. The party in the house, finding their condition desperate, determined to fight resolutely to the last, treating the summons to surrender with contempt, and defying their pursuers. A singular accident, however, put an end to all conference.

Some gunpowder, belonging to the conspirators, had been placed in a pan near the fire, to dry; and, a spark igniting it, a great explosion ensued, the house was much shattered, and Catesby, Rookewood, and Grant were severely wounded: but the most remarkable circumstance was, that sixteen pounds of powder, which had been lying in a bag under the pan in question, fell into the courtyard amongst the assailants without exploding. Walshe then ordered a general assault on the house; when Thomas Wintour was wounded, the two Wrights shot dead, and Rookewood much hurt. Catesby and Piercy were soon after struck dead at the same instant; and the rest surrendered to the sheriff. These, seven in number, were in January, 1606, tried, and with Guy Fawkes, executed; four at St. Paul's, and four in Old Palace-yard.

Raleigh's Conspiracy. The attempt to place lady Arabella Stuart on the throne, occurred in the very commencement of the reign. It is called Raleigh's plot, although lord Grey, a puritan, lord Cobham, a man of no principle, and Watson and Clarke, catholic priests, were the leaders; and Cobham alone accused the knight of being privy to the conspiracy, a charge which that dishonourable lord soon retracted. Coke, the famous lawyer, then attorney-general, loaded Raleigh with abuse, because he had been Essex's rival; but he owned, when the jury pronounced him guilty, that he had only charged him with having been *aware* of the plot, and of keeping it secret. The two priests, and lord Cobham's brother, Mr. Broke, were executed; Cobham, Grey, and Markham were pardoned, after they had laid their heads upon the block; and Raleigh was reprieved, but ordered into confinement. He had been thirteen years incarcerated for this offence (during which he had written his history of the world, and had won all hearts by the dignified calmness with which he bore his captivity), when

James permitted him to go as commander of an expedition to the South-seas, in search of a gold-mine, which the knight asserted was to be found in Guiana, and which was sufficient, he said, not only to enrich all the adventurers, but the nation itself. James, though he refused to grant Raleigh a pardon, virtually did so by bestowing on him the supreme command; but when, repulsed by the Spaniards, who were then in possession of the part of Guiana to which he bent his course, the knight was compelled to return disappointed home, the king ordered his immediate execution, by virtue of the former sentence.

Raleigh's last night was occupied in letter-writing, an interview with his wife, and the composition of some English verses; the latter having been his constant resource when agitated in mind. The dean of Westminster wondering at the hero, reprehended the lightness of his manner; but Raleigh gave God thanks that he had never feared death, and that he had so much time as thirteen years given him to think of it: 'not,' said he, 'but that I am a great sinner, and have need of pardon; for I have been a soldier, a seaman, and a courtier.' On the morning of his execution, he smoked as usual his favourite tobacco; and in going from the prison to the scaffold, he saw his old friend, Sir Hugh Beeston, shut out by the sheriff from witnessing his execution. 'Never mind, Beeston,' cried Raleigh, 'I am sure to have a place.' Perceiving an old bald-headed man anxious to speak to him, he inquired his wish, and when the person replied, 'he only desired to see him, and to pray to God for him,' the knight, who had on a richly-embroidered night-cap, took it from his head, and placed it upon that of the stranger, saying, 'Take this to remember me; for thou hast more need of it than I.' He ascended the scaffold with cheerfulness, called certain lords nearer to him, addressed them, and, in his old courtly style, affectionately embraced them, observing, 'I have now a long journey

go, and must take my leave.' Having taken off his black velvet night-gown, satin doublet, and lace ruff, he led to the executioner to show him the axe; which not being instantly done, he repeated, 'I prithee let me see it.' On receiving it, he said, 'Think not I am afraid of this: it is sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases.' Having kissed the instrument, he called on the people to say with and for him more than once, and then laid himself upon the block to see if it would fit him. At this moment the executioner, awed by his agnanimity, threw himself upon his knees, and implored his pardon. Raleigh, with an embrace, desired him to rise, and said, 'I freely forgive thee, for soul: but have a care and when I lift up my hand so, fear not, but strike!' He immediately laid his head upon the block, and was some minutes employed in private prayer; during which the headsman became so affected, that, when the hero gave the appointed signal, he struck at random. Raleigh, upon this, wounded as he was, put forth his hands and exclaimed, 'Strike, man! why dost thou not strike?' Although two more blows were required to decapitate him, he shrank not, nor moved; and when his head fell, a murmur of horror passed through the vast assembled crowd.

Scotch Episcopal Church established, 1610. From the reformation till this period, the state of church-government in Scotland had been in a very fluctuating condition. James I., however, in 1610, established episcopacy, which was destroyed during the troubles of Charles I. by the puritans, and again restored by Charles II.; after which, until the revolution, it continued to be in the established form of the Scottish church. William III. then, on the refusal of its bishops to recognise his authority, again abolished it, substituting presbytery as the legal form of ecclesiastical rule. For a century after this period, the prelates and clergy of the deprived church, who were usually called *non-jurors*, for their re-

fusal to take the oaths of allegiance to William, were considered disaffected persons; especially as they objected to pray for the king by name in their places of worship. Though doomed for this their conscientious attachment to their ancient kings, to suffer every species of deprivation, to their honour be it recorded, that during the attempts of the pretenders in 1715 and 1745, they remained neutral, and fomented no disturbances. They gradually, however, diminished in number, from fourteen to six bishops, and from 900 to sixty clergy; and these in 1788, on the death of the young pretender, submitted to the house of Brunswick. In 1792, through the steady exertions of Sir James Allan Park, Dr. Gaskin, and Mr. Stevens (its voluntary London committee of patrons), this remnant was permitted, by a bill in parliament, to assemble for the purposes of public worship, and to resume all ecclesiastical privileges, without fear of molestation or imprisonment. This pure branch of the primitive apostolic church, under the protecting care of its very estimable though ill-rewarded prelates, is now gradually extending its roots; and it bids fair to flourish, and to increase, and to be settled after its old estate, and to do better than at its beginning.'

Heretical Burnings. In two instances James acted in the persecuting spirit of the catholics: Bartholomew Leggatt, accused of denying Christ's divinity, was burned in Smithfield; and Edward Whiteman, for a similar offence, at Litchfield, 1611. Both these men were offered their pardon, says Stowe, when at the stake, if they would recant; but they refused.

A Plague carried off in London in the three years 1603, 1604, and 1605, no less than 105,000 persons.

Colonization of America. One of the most memorable events in the reign of James, is the commencement of the English colonies in America. Elizabeth had planted Virginia, which quickly decayed; but now, Sir Thomas Gates and others formed companies,

and sent over portions of trade-experienced people, who turned the desert coast of St. Augustine and cape Breton into a flourishing possession. No blood was shed in taking this country, no one was ejected; and thousands who had been starving in England, were here suddenly and easily raised to more than competency.

The Whig and Tory Factions first rose in the parliament of 1621. The tory party, or supporters of the monarchy and episcopacy, were so designated by their opponents, because the term *tory* was applied to a papist banditti then ravaging Ireland, the word being purely Irish, and signifying 'freebooter.' The upholders of monarchy, in revenge, called their assailants *whigs*, as the puritanical party in Scotland, who preached sedition in the fields, and lived on the poorest diet, were then nicknamed, from the word *wehy*, which was their common drink, obtained from the farm-houses. In Charles I.'s time, these two factions became highly notorious, under the titles of *cavaliers* and *roundheads*; and in very recent times they have revived, the modern whigs favouring popular ascendancy, and the tories that of the king, nobility, and the other wealthy or educated branches of the nation.

London Life. James, finding an inclination amongst his nobility to prefer a London residence to living on their estates, enforced a law of Elizabeth's, which restrained the building of goodly houses in the city. He would often say to the gentry, 'Sirs, at London

you are like ships in a sea, which show like nothing; but in your country villages you are like ships in a river, which look like great things.' Notwithstanding this, the increase of arts, pleasures, and social commerce, was just beginning to produce an inclination for the soft and civilized life of the town; a taste which has gone on strengthening, until it has reached the somewhat too luxurious character of our day.

State of English Literature. Letters may be truly said to have revived during the reign of James. Some of the most extraordinary minds illuminated this day, and if the euphony, elegance, and correct taste of modern times were wanting, genius of the most transcendent kind was not. Shakspeare, the most original and natural of poets, Bacon, who opened the door of science, Galileo, the first of astronomers, Ben Jonson, Raleigh, Camden, Cervantes, Grotius, Hooker, flourished at this time. Even king James, as a logical disputant, and a most powerful relater of facts, and calculator of consequences (as is evinced by his speeches in parliament in particular), is entitled to great praise: no man could write, when he chose to lay aside the pedantic style of his day, more nervously, neatly, and convincingly than he. The illustrious Milton was a boy in this reign; yet was he old enough to be taken into account with the other stars of the period, being seventeen when the king died.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Accession of the House of Romanov. Michael Fædorowitch, ancestor of the present Russian sovereign, ascended the Muscovite throne, 1613, the family of Rurik, which had governed the empire 700 years, being extinct by the death of Theodore. Theodore had died in 1597, between which period and the accession of Michael, a noble named Boris, brother-in-law of the late sovereign, usurped the authority. During the sway of Boris, 1600, the

city of Moscow was desolated by one of the most dreadful famines recorded in history. Thousands of people lay dead in the streets, with their mouths full of hay, straw, or even the most filthy things, which they had been attempting to eat. Parents were said to have eaten their children, and children their parents. Petrus, who witnessed the horrid scene, affirms that he saw a woman bite several pieces from a child's arm, as she was car-

rying it along; and another writer states that four women, having ordered a peasant to come to one of their houses, under pretence of paying him for some wood, killed and eat up both him and his horse. It was computed that 500,000 fell on this occasion, though Boris did all in his power to alleviate the calamity. Just before the accession of Michael, the Poles had resolved on possessing the Russian throne; but after a contest, in which 100,000 persons fell, they were driven out, and lost all footing in Russia for ever.

Death of Barneveldt. This celebrated grand pensionary of Holland, having tried to limit the power of Maurice, the second stadtholder, was beheaded for the same, 1619. He had been ambassador to Elizabeth and Henry IV., and had possessed great influence in state affairs for many years.

France under Louis XIII., 1610 to 1643. Mary of Medicis, the ambitious widow of Henry IV., became regent for her young son, and reposed all her confidence in Marshal d'Ancre and his wife Leonora Galigai; but Louis had no sooner approached manhood, than he caused the one to be shot, and the other to be burned for witchcraft. Mary was hereupon compelled to quit Paris; and cardinal Richelieu, a man of extraordinary political talents, became the disposer of all state affairs. Resolved on the destruction of the Huguenots, he invested and took Rochelle, their last fortress; from which period they were never able to make any stand against their oppressors. A quarrel between the cardinal and Gaston, duke of Orleans, occasioned the latter and his mother, queen Mary, to quit France; and the duke of Montmorenci having been taken in arms in their cause, was very unjustifiably executed. In the war which followed between France and Germany, Gustavus of Sweden took the side of Louis; and Richelieu,

notwithstanding his clerical rank, acted as a general. The cardinal's power over the king was now so great, that when the monarch's unfortunate friend and associate, Cinq Mars, conspired to destroy his influence in the state, Richelieu compelled Louis to sign the warrant for his execution. Both the weak king and his ambitious minister died soon after this event, 1643.

Spain and Portugal under Philip III. This prince was twenty when he succeeded his father, Philip II. His general, Spinola, took Ostend, after a siege of three years, and the loss of 80,000 men; but by making peace with his enemies in that quarter, Philip established the house of Nassau in the possession of the seven revolted Netherland provinces, over which it rules to this day. The discovery of America, instead of enriching Spain, was now found to have grievously impoverished it; for the people had become lazy and wholly averse from business, by the sudden influx of the precious metals. The ruin of the kingdom, however, in this respect, was completed by Philip III.; for, at the instigation of the inquisition, and of his prime minister, the duke of Lerma, he expelled the remaining Moors from the peninsula, giving them only thirty days to prepare for their departure, on the plea that they were Mahometans in heart, though professedly Christians, and might corrupt the true faith. By this violent and impolitic measure, Spain lost a million of industrious inhabitants; and as the country was already depopulated by wars, emigrations to America, and by luxury, it sank into a state of languor from which it has never recovered. Philip's death took place through the punctilious ceremony of his court. A brasier in the council-room having overheated him while the officer, whose duty it was to remove it, was absent, a violent erysipelas ensued, and carried him to the grave in a few days, 1621.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Francis Lord Bacon, son of the keeper of the great seal, at the early age of nineteen wrote a book on the state of Europe; and the popular Earl of Essex bestowed on him an estate in land worth 300*l.* per annum. From some unaccountable circumstance, Bacon was, after this, concerned as a lawyer in the impeachment of his bounteous friend; and till Elizabeth's death he was oppressed with poverty, even to be twice arrested. When James succeeded, however, his admirable book on 'The Advancement of Learning,' raised him to his father's high post of lord keeper, and he was made a peer; and in 1620, pursuing his philosophical studies in the midst of political business, he sent to the king his great work, 'Novum Organon,' which, as the completion of his grand instauration of the sciences, entitles him most truly to the appellation of the father of experimental philosophy. So early as sixteen he had observed the errors of the Aristotelian philosophy; and he was grieved to see men lost in a labyrinth of definitions, distinctions, and disputations, and wasting their time in speculations altogether barren and useless. Bacon's comprehensive mind surveyed, at a glance, the whole region of science, examined the foundations of systems of philosophy that had hitherto palsied the natural progress of society, and at once suggested a sure and advantageous mode of cultivating knowledge. But wondrous to say, and such is the inexplicable character of man, that this most exalted genius, far as he was beyond his species in the capacity of tracing evil to its cause, and in finding remedies for moral and political defection, was himself accused of receiving bribes as a judge, to more than twenty charges of which he pleaded guilty, and threw himself upon the mercy of his peers. Though fined 40,000*l.*, imprisoned, and held incapable of office, he gradually recovered

the favour of James, and was restored to his estates. He died, aged 65, 1626.

Galileo, a man second in few things to Bacon, and superior to him as a practical philosopher, was born at Florence. While professor of mathematics at Pisa, he heard of the invention of the telescope by Metius, which, however, displayed every object *inverted*; and applying his mind to improve that instrument, he made it at once available to the purposes of astronomy. He next constructed a microscope: and thus are we indebted to one master mind for the means of discovering, on the one hand, an immensity in minute things, scarcely less wonderful than the boundless space, and the innumerable and immeasurable moving masses on the other. The extension and divisibility of matter are thus rendered to the natural philosopher almost as unlimited, as the extension and the divisibility of space are to the geometer. As Galileo found Copernicus to be correct in his system, he published his famous dialogue, wherein he very neatly throws all the force of argument into the character of the Copernican, as opposed to the Aristotelian; but the pope, who considered the overthrow of the Ptolemaic hypothesis dangerous to other existing opinions, brought him before the Inquisition, and forced him to recant. It was Galileo who observed the inequalities on the moon's surface; who planned the accurate calculation of the longitude by the eclipses of the Medicean stars; who invented the cycloid; and who paved the way for Newton's grand discovery of gravitation, by calculating the increasing velocity of falling bodies. These he demonstrated to describe spaces, according to the *squares of the times*; or, in other words, that the space fallen through in one portion of time, is exactly half that which would be described in the same time, with the

velocity last acquired, continued uniformly. He also clearly showed that the motion of projectiles, such as the cannon-ball, was in the form or path of a parabola; accounting for that which every gunner practises, viz., that to hit any thing, his gun must be pointed upwards, and not on a level with the object. He died 1642, aged 78.

Ben Jonson, the dramatic writer and laureate who, for nearly a century, was far more popular than Shakspeare. The latter, however, wrote for all time; and Jonson is already obsolete.

Camden, the antiquary and Pausanias of England, was in the Herald's college. So great was his fame, that few foreigners visited England without calling upon him. His reign of Elizabeth, Britannia, and other works relative to England, were written in Latin, and are constantly referred to for their accuracy, and interesting description of ancient habits and manners.

Cervantes, a Spaniard, who turned soldier, and went to Italy, was taken by a Barbary corsair, and kept six years in slavery; after which he returned to Madrid. Here he fell into want and a prison; and during his confinement wrote his '*Don Quixote*,' intended as a satire upon the books of knight-errantry then so fashionable in Spain. Though his work brought him money, he died in poverty. *Don Quixote* has given the name of Cervantic to a modification of humour, irresistibly catching by its assumptive gravity and graceful management of the comic and ridiculous. The book is not only a naturalized classic of all languages, but is esteemed by the Spaniards their first production.

Grotius was a pensionary of Rotterdam; and when Barneveldt was put to death for his support of Arminianism, and his attempts to limit the power of the stadtholder, Grotius was, for the same reason, condemned to perpetual imprisonment. His wife, however, effected his escape, by shutting him up in a chest of drawers, in which he was ignorantly conveyed by two soldiers on horseback to Gorcum.

From Paris he sent an apology to the states-general; but as it was not accepted, he passed to Sweden, and for eight years acted as the queen's ambassador to France. His treatise '*De Veritate Christiani Religionis*,' is an admirable work, and deservedly well known in England.

Sir Walter Raleigh, after an education at Oxford, engaged in naval enterprises, and being introduced at court, gained Elizabeth's favour, it is said, by a single act of polite attention. Walking among her attendants, he spread his new plush cloak over a dirty part of the road, which she was about to cross; and from that day rose to places of distinction. His love of the sea led him to make many voyages in the ships then engaged in discoveries; and in one of these he took possession of Virginia (as he named the coast of Wigandaoa, in honour of the virgin queen), and brought thence the tobacco-plant to England. He contributed to the defeat of the Armada, by fitting out several ships at his own cost; but all his hopes were at an end when Elizabeth died. It is scarcely to be credited that a great deal of James's enmity to Raleigh was produced by the knight's strenuous attempts to introduce the use of tobacco; and the king's '*Counterblast against Tobacco*' still remains to illustrate the fact. He was executed, 1618.

Sir Julius Cæsar, master of the rolls under James, had been a judge of the admiralty under Elizabeth. He was remarkable for his extensive bounty and charity, insomuch as to be called almoner-general of the nation by his friends. He resided in a house at Mitcham, Surrey, which is still existing near to the spot on which a house of Raleigh's lately stood. Here he entertained Elizabeth. Sir Julius's manuscripts fell into the hands of a cheesemonger as waste-paper; but were redeemed by the happy discovery of Mr. Samuel Paterson, 1757, and sold for 500*l*.

Arminius, founder of the Arminian sect, after attending Beza's lectures on theology at Geneva, became professor

of divinity at Leyden. His whole life was a scene of virtuous labour to enforce his opinions, which are that God made man a free agent; and, that although he beforehand decrees his eventual lot, the issue depends on his own uninfluenced action. Thus Arminianism is directly opposed to Calvinism, which, enforcing the doctrine of predestination, denies the existence of free-will.

Socinus. There were two of this name, uncle and nephew. The uncle, when he found Servetus carried to the stake for venting opinions similar to his own, concealed his intention of making proselytes; but the nephew, in 1579, openly declared that Christ was a mere man, that the Holy Ghost was no distinct person, the Father alone God, and that future felicity will be eternal, but future punishment only in proportionate duration to the offences of the sinner. Such are still the opinions of his followers, who are now known by the appellation of unitarians, as opposed to the believers in the Holy Trinity.

Bellarmino, a Tuscan, the most talented of the Jesuits, who supported the papal church against the reformers. Sixtus V. made him a cardinal, and bishop of Capua; but he resigned his see to pay greater attention to the fearful state of his church. He deservedly acquired high reputation as a controversialist; and so powerful was his eloquence, and so formidable his pen, that for fifty years there was scarcely a man of talent amongst the protestants who did not enter the lists against him. He was but little tinctured with the supererogatory points of belief of the catholics; and he scarcely differs from St. Augustine, and other fathers of the church, in essentials. He was small in person, having, as his bio-

grapher, Fuligati, says, his soul impressed on every feature of his face; and was a man of remarkable patience and temperance.

Hooker, Master of the Temple, London, whose fame rests upon his 'Ecclesiastical Polity,' an incomparable book, lauded alike by protestants and catholics. Pope Clement VIII. declared he knew no writer who displayed such deep and varied learning; and it has been well observed, 'that in his invaluable work are such seeds of eternity, as must continue until the last fire shall devour all learning.'

Bahmen, the Teutonic mystic. All Germany seemed inclined to listen to the reveries of a man, who declared himself often carried up into heaven, and inspired with holy raptures. He abandoned his trade of shoemaker to turn writer; and published more than twenty theological works. As he died at the hour of his own prediction, and his private life had been exemplary, many persons believed in his inspiration. The Quakers, Quietists, and Swedenborgians, have adopted most of his tenets; and William Law, the able author of the 'Serious Call to a devout and holy Life,' considered him any thing but a fanatic.

Stow, the antiquary, who wrote an admirable 'Survey of London,' and 'Annals of England,' from the times of the Britons to his own. So poor, however, was he, that, when nearly eighty, he obtained a brief from the king, to collect the benevolent contributions of well-disposed persons.

Elzevir, the celebrated Dutch printer, who had four brothers all printers. Lewis became known 1593 by his neat and correct style of setting up his books; and was the first who distinguished between *u* and *v*.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Tea first brought into Europe, 1610, by the Dutch East India Company from China. No less than forty millions of pounds of this shrub are now annually imported into England.

Water first brought to London in

proper channels, to supply the city with it in a purer state than the traffic on the Thames would allow, 1613. Sir Hugh Middleton effected this important work by uniting two rivulets in the parishes of Ware and Amwell,

Herts, and bringing them along thirty-nine miles to a reservoir, thence called the New-river-head, at Islington. Middleton was made a baronet; but the undertaking reduced him to penury.

Logarithms invented, 1614, by lord Napier, of Merchiston in Scotland. The term, from the Greek, signifies the numbers of ratios. Logarithms are therefore the indices of the ratios of numbers to one another, being a series of numbers in arithmetical progression, corresponding to others in geometrical progression; and were invented to facilitate the solution of astronomical problems, which, having required tedious multiplications and divisions, were thus worked by the easier methods of addition and subtraction. Napier, during the infancy of algebra, acting upon the suggestion of Archimedes, assumed that all numbers were powers of one given number; and thereupon, with a master mind, discovered a method by which the indices of those powers might be found. Napier also made considerable improvements in trigonometry; and what are called Napier's two rules, include every striking variety of solution of spherical triangles.

Hair-powder first used, on curtailing the flowing hair, for cleanliness' sake. The practice seems gradually losing ground. Hair-powder is pounded starch. Starch is the sediment found at the bottom of vessels, wherein wheat has been steeped in water: the matter has only to be cleansed from impurity, and dried in the sun.

The Blood found to circulate in the body by Dr. Harvey, 1619. He first demonstrated that the heart, by its action, throws out the blood by one of two ventricles to the lungs, where, by our breathing the pure air, it is changed from a black colour to red: that being then returned by means of one of two auricles (or ear-shaped receivers) to the heart, it is then passed into the other (or left) ventricle, by which it is propelled forthwith into the tubes appointed to supply every part of the

body, called arteries. When the arteries have thus distributed their charge, still smaller tubes than they carry back the blood, now deprived of its fine red colour, to the right auricle of the heart, to undergo the same process as before. These smaller tubes are the veins. It is calculated that there are twenty-eight pounds weight of this vital fluid (448 ounces) in the body of a full grown person, of which the veins contain four-fifths, and the arteries one-fifth. It is by means of the circulation of the blood that every part of the body lives, becomes warm, and is nourished, the various secretions separated, and the chyle converted into blood; chyle being a liquid separated, or rather concocted, by the stomach from the food taken therein. Blood consists (as the microscope shows) of small globules floating in a yellowish liquid, called serum: these globules alone receive the red colour.

The Charter-house, London, founded 1611, by Thomas Sutton, Esq., a merchant, who amassed great wealth, inso-much that he kept back the Spanish armada one year, by draining the bank of Genoa of the money intended for Philip's use. The charter-house comprises a hospital as well as a school, and was so named from being built on the site of the monastery of Chartreux. The hospital is for eighty decayed gentlemen, who have been merchants or military officers, each of whom is allowed 14*l.* a year, besides a gown, provisions, fuel, and two handsome apartments: they dine in a common-hall, and attend prayers daily in the chapel. The school consists of a master, preacher, two schoolmasters, and forty-four scholars, who are supported free of any expense. The boys have an academical dress, like those of Eton and Westminster, and go eventually to either university.

Dulwich College (God's Gift), Surrey, founded 1619 by Edward Allen an actor, for six men, six women, and twelve children. Allen was a chief performer in the plays of Shakspeare. The college has a warden,

master, and four fellows. The late Sir Francis Bourgeois bequeathed a splendid collection of pictures to it, and 10,000*l.* for a tomb for himself and Mr. and Mrs. Des Enfants, and for a gallery for the paintings. The master is the head officer, and must bear the name of Allen or Alleyn. Of the four fellows, three must be in holy orders, and the fourth well skilled in music. The poor brethren and sisters, as they are called, have apartments in the college, with every thing requisite supplied them, and a very considerable pecuniary allowance. The children (boys) are classically educated; and are sent with exhibitions to either university, according to the discretion of the master. The income of the college at present is at least 14,000*l.* per annum.

The Arundelian Marbles, or Parian Chronicle, discovered.—*The Thermometer* invented, by Drebel, a Dutchman.—*Mulberry-trees* first planted in England.—*Baronets* first created.—*Copper-money* first used in England.

—*Sedan-chairs* first used, and the duke of Buckingham the first person who rode in one, that nobleman having seen them in Spain. Much clamour was raised by the common people on the occasion; it being objected that the carriers of these vehicles were degraded to the character of brute beasts.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1603, Achmet I.; 1617, Mustapha I.; 1618, Osman II.; 1622, Mustapha I. restored; 1623, Amurath IV. *Pope*. 1592, Clement VIII.; 1605, Leo XI. and Paul V.; 1621, Gregory XV.; 1623, Urban VIII. *France*. 1589, Henry IV.; 1610, Louis XIII. *Russia*. 1613, Michael Födorovitch. *Sweden*. 1592, Sigismund of Poland; 1604, Charles IX.; 1611, Gustavus Adolphus. *Denmark and Norway*. 1588, Christiern IV. *Spain and Portugal*. 1598, Philip III.; 1621, Philip IV. *Germany*. 1576, Rodolphus II.; 1612, Matthias; 1619, Ferdinand II.

SECTION II.

CHARLES I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1625 TO 1649—24 YEARS.

Personal History. Charles I. was born at Dumferline in Scotland 1600, being the son of James I. and Anne of Denmark. His presence was prepossessing, though his aspect was melancholy. His face was regular, handsome, and well-complexioned: his body strong, healthy, and justly proportioned: and being of a middle stature, he was capable of enduring great fatigue. He excelled in horsemanship and other exercises: and possessed all the exterior, as well as many of the essential qualities, which form an accomplished prince. His virtues predominated above his imperfections; for scarcely any of his faults deserve a harsher term. His dignity was free from pride, his humanity from weakness, his bravery from rashness, his temperance from austerity, his frugality from avarice. To speak the most harshly of him, his beneficent disposition was clouded by a somewhat ungracious manner; and his moderate temper exempted him not from hasty and precipitate resolutions.

The lot of Charles was cast in a period, when the precedents of the Tudor reigns and his father's, had laid the foundation of arbitrary power; while the genius of the people, roused by the general spread of opinions, which the fall of the catholic church allowed, ran violently towards liberty in thinking and in acting. From the uniformity enforced by the Romish faith, all had been

emancipated; and as Calvinists, Arminians, Socinians, arose out of the body of reformers, the fickle part of mankind saw little reason why a choice should not be permitted them in political as well as religious matters. Under the guise of superior sanctity, therefore, the puritans overturned the state; and, in the commonwealth which ensued, the tyranny of one fanatical sect took the former seat of the hierarchy.

The progress of liberty from confusion to fanatical domination, is evident to the commonest reader of our history, from Henry's breach with the pope to the murder of Charles I. Charles, therefore, as the one attempting to oppose the great engine, when it had reached a point of velocity which no mortal tact could stay, fell a victim to his arduous endeavour; and the mass rolled on, overwhelming church, nobility, and all that hitherto had been thought sacred by the nation. If then the political prudence of Charles could not, in so terrible an emergency, extricate him from his perilous situation, he may be excused, the more especially when one is at a loss to determine what conduct, in his circumstances, could have maintained the authority of his crown, and restored the peace of the country. Exposed, without revenue, and without arms, to the assaults of furious, implacable, and bigoted factions, it was never permitted him, but with the most fatal consequences, to commit the smallest mistake; a condition too rigorous to be imposed on the greatest human capacity.

As a domestic character, Charles was most amiable and exemplary. In his intercourse with the parliament, he was often alone opposed to the insinuating language, and sophistical arguments of numerous delegates; but none ever left him without admiring his firmness, the acuteness of his remarks, the propriety of his answers, and the general intelligence and powerful elocution with which he supported his conversation. Though his enemies have attempted to rob him of the merit of writing the 'Eikon Basilike,' a pathetic composition which operated in his favour like the testament of Cæsar at Rome, and which required the abilities of a Milton to vilify it, yet he is now generally imagined to be the author, and not bishop Gauden, the king's style being peculiar, and far superior to that of the prelate. In a word, it has been said of Charles I., that 'he was the worthiest gentleman, the best master, the best friend, the best husband, the best father, and the best Christian, of the age in which he lived.'

Charles, when prince of Wales, had been to Spain with the duke of Buckingham, to see if he should like the person of the infanta, in which expedition he assumed a disguise: he, however, returned whole in heart, and the only issue of the visit was the introduction of Spanish slashed doublets and dresses, which kept the fashion in England until the king's death. Charles married Henrietta-Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, by whom he had (amongst other children) *Charles II.*; *Mary*, wife of William prince of Orange, and mother of our William III., and *James II.*

Political History. When Charles ascended the throne, the kingdom was embroiled in a war with Spain, and the whole people were at enmity with his late father's favourite, the duke of Buckingham. The first parliament which he summoned, being much more ready to state grievances than to grant supplies, the king dissolved; and, by loans and other means, an expedition was fitted out against Spain, which terminated in disgrace and disappointment. In the next year a new parliament was called; and the jealousy which prevailed between the crown and that assembly, laid the foundation of the king's misfortunes. The commons impeached Buckingham, and the king supported him. They held fast the public purse, and he intimated a design of

following 'new counsels,' and he suddenly and angrily dismissed them, while they were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament. Charles's difficulties were further increased by a war with France, in gratification of the private enmity of Buckingham; who added to the odium against him, by an ill-fated expedition to aid the Huguenots of Rochelle. A new parliament, in 1628, forced the king to pass into a law the Petition of Right, which recognised more than usual privileges in the subject. The assassination of Buckingham soon after, removed that source of discord; but as the parliament still violently opposed the levying of tonnage and poundage, the king dissolved it, and resolved to proceed without one. He accordingly put an end to the Spanish and French wars, and raised Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards lord Strafford, a man of singular firmness and talent, to the principal place in his counsels. In church affairs he was guided by Laud, bishop of London, a prelate of great learning and piety, but zealous beyond discretion, and therefore an unfit man to aid the king in his very hazardous situation.

Several years passed away in the execution of plans for raising money without the assistance of parliament; while some arbitrary proceedings of Laud in the star-chamber, increased the rage of the popular party. It is impossible not to perceive, at this juncture, that Charles and his advisers strove to maintain a portion of prerogative that had become incompatible with the progress of opinion; and it is to be regretted that a little skillful concession was not used, before the respect entertained for the king's virtues was diminished. All who spoke even against the principle of raising money without a parliament were summarily punished; until at length some daring spirits began to refuse payment for mere opposition's sake. Such of the puritans as despaired of carrying their point against the crown, emigrated to America; and it is curious to record that, by order of the court, one ship-load of such recusants was ominously stopped, in the number of whom were John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell.

It was in 1637 that Hampden commenced the career of resistance, by refusing to pay ship-money, the right to levy which without a parliament he brought into a court of law; and although he was nonsuited, the public caught up the affair, and determined to carry matters to the utmost extremity. It was in Scotland, however, that formal warlike opposition was destined to commence. Charles having endeavoured to introduce the English liturgy there, the most violent tumults ensued, and a 'Solemn League and Covenant' was entered into, 1638, by which all of the puritanical sects engaged to stand by each other. They even levied an army, against which the king headed an undisciplined English force, so equivocally inclined, that, not daring to trust it, he agreed to a peace. After an intermission of eleven years, Charles again assembled a parliament, which he hastily dissolved; and he prosecuted several of its members who had distinguished themselves by their opposition. An army, which he soon after sent against the Scots, who were again rebellious, being defeated at Newburn upon Tyne, the king, when he arrived at York, notwithstanding Strafford's advice to proceed with vigour, made a treaty with the insurgent leaders, and returned to London.

Having agreed to call another parliament, 1640, that assembly, afterwards called the *long parliament*, was brought together, which ceased not until it had established a democracy on the ruins of monarchy. It derived its name from the king's own oversight, he having passed an act to render it perpetual, that the commons might raise money from the citizens of London; who refused loans, unless the house should sit long enough to see them repaid.

The first thing done by this assembly was to impeach the minister ; Pym, a violent republican, attributing all that had been wrong in the country to Strafford's machinations. That lord was accordingly arraigned for high treason ; and after a long and eloquent speech, in which he confuted all the accusations of his enemies, was found guilty. While Charles was labouring to prevent his execution, a letter from the earl, calling upon him, in the true spirit of patriotism, to make his life the sacrifice of a mutual reconciliation between the king and the people, decided the matter ; and the earl was beheaded on Tower-hill, behaving with that composed dignity of resolution which might have been expected from his character. The high commission court, and that of star-chamber, were now abolished ; and the king, shorn of his prerogative, became a passive spectator of the ascendancy of the commons.

In the mean time a flame burst forth in Ireland, which had no small effect in kindling the ensuing conflagration at home. The oppressed catholic population of that country seeing, in the confusion of the times, a favourable opportunity for regaining their rights, laid a plan for a general rising. They failed by an accident in Dublin ; but a dreadful massacre of the protestants took place in every other part of the island. As the insurgents affected to have received a royal commission thus to punish puritanism, the English commons pretended to believe them ; and inveighing against what they termed the errors of the reign, they called for the abolition of the episcopal order. So greatly did they now provoke the hitherto compliant Charles, that he attempted in person, with an armed force, to seize five of the members while sitting. As he failed, however, in his object, by the escape of the parties, he lost courage, and, with great want of tact, apologized to the house for the proceeding. The militia of the city was soon organized by the accused members ; the queen fled to Holland to procure aid ; and Charles and the prince of Wales hastened to York. The die was now cast. Charles was received in his progress with great demonstrations of loyalty from the gentry ; and many eminent and virtuous characters, who had been his opponents in minor matters, readily joined him. On the other hand, all the puritans to a man, the inhabitants of the great trading towns, and such as had nothing to lose, sided with the parliament.

When the king was assured that the militia of London was in array under the commons, he erected his standard at Nottingham, 1642, a hostile declaration, which the parliament speedily answered. The first action took place at Edgehill, and although indecisive, it enabled Charles to approach London ; but he soon after retired to Oxford, where some fruitless negotiations were entered into. In 1644 Cromwell gained a victory over the royalists at Marston-moor ; and in the next year the king lost all at Naseby. Thenceforward a series of disasters attended the royal arms every where, and Charles came to the resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the Scottish troops, then lying before Newark.

But just before this catastrophe, the parliament, to show its animosity to the king, executed archbishop Laud, who had long been imprisoned. The same illegality as had appeared in the case of Strafford, the same violence and iniquity in conducting the trial, are conspicuous throughout the whole course of this prelate's prosecution. He died with great dignity, observing to those about him, ' No one can be more willing to send me out of life, than I am desirous to go.'

Meanwhile Charles was received with respect by the Scots, though placed under a guard ; and a series of abortive negotiations ensuing, an agreement was most atrociously made with the parliament to surrender him to their commissioners, on the payment of a large sum claimed as arrears by the Scottish

army. The king was accordingly carried first to Holmby-house, Northamptonshire, then to the head-quarters of the army at Reading, and soon after to Hampton-court. Fear of the Independents, who now seemed the rising, and were known to be the most fanatical party amongst the rebels, induced the monarch to escape to the Isle of Wight; where he put himself into the hands of Hammond, the governor, a creature of Cromwell's, who lodged him in Carisbrook castle. While there, the Scots, repenting of their treachery, marched a large army towards the south to relieve him; but Cromwell wholly defeated it, while Fairfax put down similar loyal attempts in Essex and Kent. A new negotiation was now opened with the king; and Charles so nearly agreed to all the demands of the rebels, that a vote passed the commons expressive of a wish to come to terms. The triumphant army of Cromwell, however, just returned from the defeat of the duke of Hamilton, entered the House, and drove therefrom all the members inclined to favour the monarch, denouncing him a traitor. As the Lords refused to concur in a vote for this purpose, the latter declared their concurrence unnecessary; and Charles being conducted to London, and stripped of all the ensigns of royalty, was brought before the court of justice especially erected for so unprecedented a trial, January 1649.

The behaviour of the king had been calm and dignified throughout his troubles; and in no respect was it more so than on this eventful occasion. Three times he objected to the authority of the court, and supported his refusal by clear and cogent arguments. At length evidence being heard against him, on the proof that he had been in arms against the parliamentary forces, sentence of death was pronounced upon him. He asked for a conference with both houses, but his request was refused, and only three days were allowed him to prepare for his end. As he left the tribunal, he was insulted by a portion of the soldiery; and other base and unpardonable indignities were offered to him, which he bore with his usual equanimity. The interposition of foreign powers, the devotion of friends and ministers, who sought to save him by taking all the blame upon themselves, were vain; and after passing the brief time allowed in religious exercises, and in tender interviews with his family and friends, he was led to the scaffold January 30th, before his own palace of Whitehall. The body and head were instantly put into a coffin, and conveyed first to St. James's, and thence privately to Windsor; where the usurpers of the government permitted their interment, provided the expenses of the funeral exceeded not 500*l*. The fanatical governor of the castle, however, would not suffer bishop Juxon to read the burial service on the occasion, declaring that, 'as the common prayer-book was put down, he would not suffer it to be used in the garrison under his command;' so that the coffin was placed in a grave hastily dug in St. George's chapel, near the tomb of Henry VIII., in perfect silence. Upon the coffin was a plate of silver with the words 'King Charles, 1649;' and the velvet pall was buried with it.

As doubts long existed respecting the burial-place of Charles, the Prince Regent ordered, in his own presence, a search to be made, 1813; when the coffin, which was of lead, was found, covered by the pall. Within this was a wooden one much decayed, containing the body wrapped in cerecloth, into the folds of which an unctuous matter had been poured. The shape of the face was perfect; the pointed beard, many of the teeth, and much of the hair remained; and the head had been severed from the body by a transverse cut through the fourth cervical vertebra.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Trial and Execution of the King. | sat in the painted chamber; and prayers
On January 20th, 1649, the high court | were just over, when it was announced

that the king, borne in a close sedan between two rows of soldiers, was approaching. Cromwell ran to a window, and as suddenly returned, pale yet highly excited, calling out, 'He is here, he is here, sirs; the hour for this grand affair draws nigh. Decide, I pray ye, what ye intend to reply; for he will instantly inquire in whose name, and by what authority, we presume to try him.' No one replying at the moment, Henry Martin at length observed, 'In the name of the commons, and of all the good people of England.' To this no objection was made, and the court adjourned to Westminster-hall, headed by Bradshaw, the president. Bradshaw took his seat in a chair of state; on the right and left were the members of the court on seats of scarlet cloth; while the guards filled the ends of the hall. The doors being thrown open, the crowd rushed in, and the prisoner was ordered to be brought forward. Under guard of Colonel Hacker, and thirty-two other officers, the king entered, walking with a gold-headed cane; and on coming to the arm-chair placed for him at the bar, fixed a long and severe look upon the court, and then seated himself, without taking off his hat. Suddenly he rose, looked first at the guard, and then at the spectators, again fixed his eyes upon his judges, and sat down amidst the general silence of the court. Bradshaw now rose, and calling him 'Charles Stuart,' desired him to listen to the charges to be preferred against him. The attorney-general then walked forward to recite them; when Charles, putting out his cane, touched him on the shoulder, and cried 'Silence!' and at the same instant the gold head of the king's cane fell audibly on the ground. The monarch, who was, in common with the people of his day, swayed by superstitious notions, seemed much affected by this incident, picked up the ornament, resumed his seat, and said no more. When the attorney-general, with great bitterness, pronounced him 'a tyrant, traitor, and murderer,' the king laughed, but replied not; but

when called on to plead guilty or not guilty, he refused so to do, unless informed by what authority the court ventured to sit in judgment upon him. A discussion ensuing between himself and Bradshaw on this point, the latter insolently ordered his removal; and on the next day, being in like manner brought up, the president began by saying, 'We sit by authority of the commons of England, an authority to which you are to be held responsible;' and when the king again refused to plead, he was again removed, calling out to the people, 'Bear in mind, that your king is to be condemned without being permitted to say a word in defence of his and your own liberties!'

It was on the 27th that this iniquitous court opened in the painted chamber for the last time; and the names being called over as usual, a woman's voice was heard to exclaim from the gallery, at the name of Fairfax, 'He has too much sense to be here!' When the king entered, the soldiers, incited by Axtell their commander, grossly insulted him; the people, meantime, seemed paralyzed, and said nothing. The king wished first to address the court; but Bradshaw overruled this, and was solemnly calling on all present to recollect that 'the prisoner at the bar had been brought by consent of the nation to answer for his crimes at that bar,' when the same female voice called out, 'Not half the people! Oliver Cromwell is a traitor!' This courageous woman proved to be lady Fairfax herself, whom Axtell, applying to her and the other ladies present the grossest epithets, soon silenced by sending a file of soldiers into the gallery. Bradshaw then proceeded; but as the king demanded to be heard by his peers, and colonel Downs, one of the court, leaned to his request, the whole party adjourned for a time to another room, and in half an hour returned, declaring that his wish could not be complied with. Charles appeared to be subdued on hearing this, and no longer insisted with any degree of vigour.

Sentence of death having then been pronounced, he attempted to speak, but was refused that privilege by Bradshaw, who called out, 'Guards, remove your prisoner.' The king, though surrounded by the soldiers, exclaimed, 'Surely, sir, with your permission, I can speak after sentence! Stay, soldiers. The sentence, sir—sir, think what justice others are to expect!—And with these words on his lips, he was hustled from the hall, many of the soldiers spitting in his face, reviling him, and more than one even striking him. One poor fellow, however, like the thief on the cross, called to Charles for his blessing, and endeavoured to allay the rancour of his companions; but Axtell, coming behind him, knocked him down: whereat the king could not help saying, 'Sir, you have assuredly visited his sin with a heavy punishment!' Many in the crowd, not soldiers, poured forth their wishes for his preservation; and the king, softened by this unexpected commiseration, warmly expressed his gratitude for their dutiful affection. When in the park again, returning to the palace of St. James's, some rude soldiers pressed upon him and shouted out 'Justice!' on which the monarch calmly observed, 'Poor souls! for a little money they would do as much against their commanders.'

The king passed the three days' interval allowed him with great tranquillity, chiefly in reading and devotion. All his family that remained in England were allowed access to him; viz., the princess Elizabeth, and duke of Gloucester, the former very young, and the latter nearly an infant. He desired the princess to tell her mother that he had never once, even in thought, failed in fidelity towards her; and taking the young duke on his knee, he said, 'They are going to cut off thy father's head.' At these words, the child looked very steadfastly upon him. 'Mark, child,' continued the king, 'what I say: they will cut off my head, and perhaps make thee a king: but thou must not

be a king so long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive!' The little prince passionately exclaimed, 'I will be torn in pieces first!'

On the morning of his death, Charles awoke two hours before day-break, after a sound sleep of four hours. He called to Sir Thomas Herbert, who lay on a pallet by his side, and bade him rise; 'for,' said he, 'I have a great work to do this day!' He then said to an attendant, 'Let me have a shirt on more than ordinary, by reason the season is so sharp;' (it was a severe frost, so that bishop Juxon induced the king to wear a cloak till the moment of his death;) 'as, if I should shake, some observers will think it proceeds from fear. I would have no such imputation. I fear not death; for I bless God, I am prepared!' Bishop Juxon then came, and read the church service for the day with him; and at ten o'clock colonel Hacker arrived, and entering the royal chamber, trembling from head to foot, announced that it was time to set off for Whitehall. The king cheerfully agreed to begin his last walk on earth; which was from St. James's palace, across the park to Whitehall, bishop Juxon accompanying him on one side, and colonel Tomlinson on the other, both bare-headed. Charles walked fast, and every now and then called out to the guard to walk apace. As he passed Spring-garden, he pointed to a tree, saying, 'That tree was planted by brother Henry;' and he then suddenly said to Juxon, 'I now go to strive for an heavenly crown, with less solicitude than I have often fought for an earthly one.' On reaching Whitehall, the preparations were not complete, so that he took, when offered, a glass of claret and some bread about twelve; and soon after, the bishop administered the sacrament to him.

The warrant for the execution was at length brought by Hacker, signed first by Cromwell, who had obtained the names of his adherents to the document after no small contention; having

even, in his resentment, spirted the ink out of his pen over the hand and face of one of the party. In fact, it seems to have been a trifle which, after all this formal mockery of justice, turned the scale against the monarch.

With great calmness King Charles walked to the scaffold, having with him the bishop and colonel; and after addressing rather those who were around him than the people beneath (as the parliament had ordered an immense guard to keep off the people), he closed his earthly communing with a few pious observations to Juxon, and some words of caution to the executioner. Speaking to the latter (who was the common hangman, Richard Brandon, disguised by a mask), he said, 'I shall say but short prayers; and when I put out my hands, do your duty.' Then turning to the bishop, he said, 'I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can be.'—'You exchange, Sire,' said the prelate, 'an earthly for a heavenly crown,—a goodly exchange!' He gave his George to the bishop, saying 'Remember!' (meaning that he was to convey it, if possible, to prince Charles); and then, fitting his head to the block, said to the executioner, 'You must set it fast.'—Soon after, he knelt down, and, having offered up a brief prayer, gave the appointed signal; whereon Brandon, at a blow, severed his head from his body, and holding it up, cried aloud, 'Behold the head of a traitor!' A dismal groan, such (says an eyewitness) as never before was heard, resounded in every direction; a vast number of persons, men and women, fainted; and as the shrieks of the females began to preponderate, several troops of horse, marching up from Charing-cross, pressed upon the vast assembled crowd, and rapidly cleared the street before Whitehall.

The Civil Battles. In these contests, the cavaliers identified their quarrel with their honour and their love of country. They appeared, like the knights of chivalric days, with loose locks escaping from beneath their

plumed helmets, their accoutrements glittering in the sun, and carrying themselves with all the martial pride which makes the battle-day like a pageant or a festival. While they pranced to and fro, as if to make a jest of death, their trumpets sounded a loud defiance. The roundheads, on the other hand, were seen arranged in deep masses; and with their steel caps and high-crowned hats drawn close over their brows, they looked determination. With hard-closed lips, they displayed the inly-working rage of their hearts, now blown up to furnace-heat by the extempore effusions of their preachers; and every now and then their fierce wrath found vent in the terrible denunciations of the Hebrew psalms and prophecies. The royalists regarded their adversaries with that scorn which the gay and high-born affect at least for the precise and sour-mannered; while, on the other hand, the soldiers of the covenant looked on their enemies as the enemies of Israel, and considered themselves as a people especially appointed to crush them:—a creed which extinguished fear and remorse together. There was bravery and virtue in both parties: but with this high advantage on the parliamentary side,—that, while the aristocratic honour of the royalists separated the patrician from the plebeian soldier in their army, the religious zeal of the puritans bound officer and man together in a fierce and resolute sympathy, and made equality itself an argument for subordination. The captain prayed at the head of his company; and the general's oration was a sermon.

It would be tedious to record all the marchings and counter-marchings of two ill-disciplined armies: suffice it to say that, when the king reviewed his forces first at Wellington, in Shropshire, he found them amount to 10,000; and if wealthy soldiers could have availed, he had a vast advantage over the parliament-troops, one regiment of his guards alone, under lord Bernard Stuart, having landed estates to an amount greater than the property of

the then whole houses of lords and commons. Prince Rupert, son of the unfortunate Palatine, was general of the king's horse, and Sir Jacob Astley of his foot; and the earl of Lindesay was over all. The parliament-forces, then under lord Essex, amounted to at least 24,000, and were daily augmenting. The chief leaders besides Essex, were Waller, Bradshaw, Ireton, Fairfax, Cromwell, Hampden, Lambert, and Fleetwood. The first battle of moment was that of Edgehill, 1642; in a skirmish at Chalgrave, Hampden, confessedly the most upright man amongst the parliamentarians, received a wound, of which he soon died; and at the battle of Newbury (all in the first campaign), Charles lost his excellent general, Lucius Carey, lord Falkland. The fight of Marston-Moor, in which 50,000 British troops were led to mutual slaughter, terminated (July, 1644) unfavourably for the king, Cromwell being therein opposed to prince Rupert, and taking his whole train of artillery. The fight of Naseby (June, 1645) closed the civil contest; for when it was known that the king had been driven off the field by the success of Cromwell Fairfax and Ireton, with the loss of all his ammunition and artillery, and of 5000 prisoners, the royal cause every where gave way. The Cornish people, had they been well supported, would probably have now effected all that was required by the king; but their troops, however loyally disposed, were too ill-disciplined to stand against the parliamentarians. The navy, from the first, was on the side of the commons. The Scots, after their sale of the king for 400,000*l.*, repented, and sent 20,000 men under Hamilton and Langdale into England, though without effect; and the king's last fortress, Colchester, after the most heroic defence, capitulated to Fairfax, who, contrary to his accustomed lenity, sacrificed Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, for their devotion and fidelity to the royal cause.

Assassination of Buckingham. The

duke had gone to Portsmouth 1628, to conduct the large fleet and army assembled to relieve Rochelle, the Huguenot station in France, which was now closely blockaded by the French. It was at this juncture that one Felton, of good family, who had formerly been refused a vacant post in the army by the duke, finding that the parliament had issued a remonstrance against Buckingham's waste of the public money, resolved to revenge himself for his private injury, and do the commons a service. Obtaining access to a military company, wherein the duke was conversing, Felton approached his victim unnoticed, and stabbed him to the heart. The duke only called out, 'The villain has killed me!' and fell dead on the spot. No one had seen the blow, nor the person who gave it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was a paper sewn, containing part of the remonstrance of the commons, it was concluded that it belonged to the assassin. At the same time a man without a hat was seen walking composedly before the door of the house; and on being charged with the crime, he did not deny it, but gloried in the deed, as he did also when led to execution.

Two Plagues, 1625 and 1636, carried off in London 60,000 persons.

Rise of the Independents. This sect, which considered itself warranted by a commission from above, to reform matters with the strong hand, eventually got the better of the presbyterians in the parliament; and Cromwell, its coryphæus, soon dispossessed, sword in hand, all the latter of their seats. Each sect displayed a fanatical zeal highly repugnant to the spirit of Christianity; and we are no less shocked at the audacity of the one, than we are disgusted at the mean and degrading expedients adopted by the other, to carry into effect their respective designs. The independents differed from the other puritans only 'in the point of church-government; they holding every separate congregation of persons, employed in the worship of God, whe-

ther in a house or a church, to be a perfect and independent church, capable of making rules for its own guidance.

The Ship-money Levy. In order to equip a fleet (at least this was the pretence made) each of the maritime towns was required, with the aid of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were appointed them. London was rated at twenty ships. This was a tax which in former reigns had been levied in like manner without the

consent of parliament; but then the exigency of the state was believed to demand such a course more than at present. The fact is that, as the commons had refused the needful supplies to the king, he was compelled to resort to arbitrary measures to obtain money: in the same way he offered to compound with the catholics, and to dispense with the penal laws against them, on their purchasing such immunity.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Revolt of Portugal. Philip IV., who succeeded his father, Philip III., on the Spanish throne, was at war with Holland and France at the same moment; and the Portuguese, taking advantage of the circumstance, threw off the Spanish yoke, and raised John, duke of Braganza, to the throne, 1640. The descendants of king John possess the crown of Portugal at this day. Oliva-rez, the minister of Philip, was disgraced on this latter account, it being alleged that his mismanagement had produced the revolt; but this did not prevent the further losses to Spain of Roussillon, Artois, and Alsace, which were given up to France by treaty.

Rebellion of Masaniello. Naples was at this period subject to Austria, and a viceroy of its deputation resided in the city. The Neapolitans had long conducted themselves loyally towards their foreign rulers, and had supported many heavy taxes without murmuring, until 1647, when an impost was laid upon all sorts of fruits, dry and green, which supplied their chief food to the bulk of the population. While the lower orders were in a state of great excitement on the occasion, one Tomaso Anello, a name familiarly abbreviated to Masaniello, who carried on a trade in fish, suddenly exclaimed to a group of persons conversing on the matter, 'I will be hanged but I will right this city!' and soon after, at the head of 2000 boys, attacked and rifled the palace of the viceroy. He was thereupon saluted sovereign by 150,000

of the populace; and, though of such a grade, Masaniello possessed great firmness and good sense. A stage was erected in the market-place, where, clothed in white, he daily gave public audience, received petitions, and decided all causes, civil and criminal. By a formal decree, the houses and goods of sixty farmers of the taxes were burned; and death was threatened to all who should purloin or save from the flames the smallest article. At length, convinced of the formidable nature of the confederacy, the viceroy agreed to treat with Masaniello; who accordingly went in state to his residence, habited in cloth of silver, and mounted upon a lofty charger, with 50,000 persons in his train. As the object of the insurrection was now accomplished, Anello intimated his intention to retire to his former state of privacy; but his wife and kindred forbade it, and there is reason to believe that his mind, unaccustomed to the change, was greatly affected soon after. He suddenly began to oppress with the most wayward tyranny the people whom he had so recently relieved; and a conspiracy being formed against him, four assassins set upon him, and after murdering him, threw his head into one ditch, and his body into another, 1648.

Persia under Abbas the Great. During his reign (1584 to 1628) this shah, who was a descendant of Ismael, the founder of the kingdom, recovered large portions which had been taken

from his country by the Turks and Tartars, and made Ispahan the capital of his dominions. He had all the vindictive cruelty of his race, and stained his name by the assassination in cold blood of the Curds, who had assisted him to take the city of Orumi. He acted thus barbarously, lest the Curds should again aid his enemies, the Turks, to recover the provinces he had reduced.

Battle of Lutzen. Gustavus Adolphus, grandson of the heroic Vasa, succeeded his father, Charles IX., on the Swedish throne; and having shown himself a politic prince in various contests with his northern neighbours, resolved on the bold scheme of invading Germany, upon finding the emperor, Ferdinand II., league with his enemies, the Poles. The protestant princes of Germany, who regarded him as their champion, aided him in this enterprise; and the French and English supporting the project, he embarked with an army of 60,000 men in seventy ships. Penetrating into Saxony, he encountered the imperialists on several occasions with success, and defeated the famous general, count Tilly, at Leipsic, 1631. He was then opposed by Wallenstein on the plains of Lutzen, 1632. The Swedish infantry broke the Imperialists, in spite of their utmost efforts, and took all their artillery; but the cavalry not being able to pass the river so expeditiously as the king thought necessary, he led the way himself, attended by the duke of Saxe-Lauenburg, who, it is said, having been corrupted by the emperor, basely shot the monarch in the back, in the heat of the action which ensued. The Swedes, on hearing of their king's death, charged with a fury that nothing could resist; so that the Germans were

defeated a second time, just as the corps of Pappenheim came up to their assistance. On this the fight was renewed, but the Swedes were invincible: Pappenheim was mortally wounded, and his army totally routed, with the loss of 9000 killed in the field and the pursuit.

Rise of the Jansenists. Jansen, bishop of Ypres, had been advanced to his see, 1634, by the king of Spain, for his censure of the protection afforded to the protestants by France, a censure which greatly irritated Richelieu against him and his followers. But Jansen is best known as the head of his sect. His tenets are contained in a book which was not published till after his death, called 'Augustinus.' This work produced the great modern schism in the church of Rome, displaying as it does the doctrine of St. Augustine on the constitution of the human nature, in its original, fallen, and renewed state; on sanctifying grace, through the Saviour; and on the predestination of men and angels. The jesuits became the violent opponents of all who adopted the notions of Jansen and Augustine, repugnant as they were to their own opinions concerning human liberty and divine grace; pope Urban VIII. issued a bull against the new doctrines; Innocent XI. especially condemned what he termed the five heretical propositions contained in 'Augustinus,' and a contest was maintained for more than a century upon the matter. In the reformed church, Arminius and Calvin advocated respectively the opinions of the Jesuits and Jansenists.

Mount Vesuvius, by a sudden eruption, overwhelmed 4000 persons, with their houses and lands, 1632.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Archbishop Laud, the son of a clothier of Reading, was noted at Oxford for his dislike of the puritans; and becoming chaplain to the king, accompanied him to Scotland, in order to persuade the presbyterians to use the

liturgy of the church of England. He was soon advanced to the mitre; and ultimately to the see of Canterbury, with the office of prime minister. His attempts to restore some of those outward forms of the Romish church

which, in the zeal of the reformation, had been swept away as supererogatory, gave great offence to the puritans; who, because he had acted with indiscreet rigour in some of the star-chamber prosecutions, branded him with every opprobrious epithet, accused him of plotting to send an army against the Scots to compel them to uniformity, and burned down part of his palace at Lambeth. The commons expressed their hatred of him by an impeachment; and for three years before his execution, he was exposed in prison to every possible indignity. Laud's learning, piety, and virtue were undeniably great; and his fall was alone occasioned by an ill-judged attempt to raise the influence of the church of England not gradually but at once to the highest standard.

Cardinal Richelieu was raised to eminence by Mary de Medicis, whom he reconciled to her son Louis XIII., and became prime minister. Naturally fond of war, he determined to reduce Rochelle, the stronghold of the Huguenots, and effected it. He ungratefully saw the queen, who had so befriended him, banished to Cologne; but for France he performed many signal services: her prosperity he consolidated, her glory he amplified, her arts he encouraged, her learned men he liberally patronized.

The Duc d'Olivarez was twenty-two years minister of Philip IV. of Spain. His domestic regulations produced great good; but in his foreign transactions he was most unfortunate. He saw the Catalonians revolt, Portugal separate from Spain, and Brazil fall into the power of the Dutch. For these consequences of his error, which were mainly attributable to the superior cunning of Richelieu, his French contemporary, he was disgraced; and he died of hypochondriasis at Toro, a few months after his removal, 1643. England, France, and Spain, were remarkable for having at the same moment, each a youthful sovereign, and a most enterprising minister. While Buckingham swayed Charles's coun-

sels, Richelieu directed France, and Olivarez the Spanish nation; and each with a vigour, which the changes effected by the reformation rendered peculiarly hazardous.

Prince Rupert, son of Frederick of Bohemia and James I.'s daughter, not only conducted the armies of Charles I. but the navy of Charles II.; and defeated the Dutch 1673. He was fond of experimental chemistry, and is believed to have been the inventor of mezzotinto engraving.

Christina, queen of Sweden, succeeded her father, the Great Gustavus, at five years of age. She is famous for her patronage of learned men, and for constant attempts to enlighten her subjects; but she was highly eccentric. She resigned her crown to her cousin, turned catholic, and went to reside at Rome; but when her cousin died, she would have resumed her authority but for the opposition of the nobles.

Lucius Cary, lord Falkland, after voting for the prosecution of Strafford, and for the exclusion of the bishops from the house of peers, eagerly supported the royal cause, and levied soldiers for the king. When at Oxford with Charles, he proposed a trial of fortunes by the *sortes Virgilianæ*, a silly mode of endeavouring to pry into futurity practised by superstitious persons, by taking the passage which presented itself on a chance opening of the *Æneid* as indicative of the fate of the inquirer. Falkland, considering the words first seen by himself to be prophetic of his fall in battle, became melancholy, and was frequently observed by his servants muttering to himself, 'Peace, peace!' On the morning of Newbury-fight, he carefully dressed himself, saying that he should leave the world before night, and would not willingly be found dead in dirty linen; and going into the thickest of the battle, he soon fell by a musket-ball. Falkland, who was a studious man for his time, used to observe, 'that he pitied unlearned gentlemen on a rainy day.'

Geoffrey Hudson, a dwarf, who

headed a troop in king Charles's army, and on one occasion commanded a ship in the royal fleet. His first appearance at court was in a pie, whence he emerged at an entertainment given by the duke of Buckingham to Charles I. and Henrietta Maria. Till thirty he was scarcely twenty inches in height; but he then grew to forty-five inches. His life was full of misfortunes. He was provoked by a Mr. Crofts to fight a duel, to get rid of his frequent jeers respecting his diminutive size, and killed his adversary; he was then taken captive by a Turkish pirate, and carried to Barbary; and, ultimately, after the restoration, being a catholic, he was imprisoned in England till his decease, on suspicion of being concerned in the popish plot.

Rubens, of Cologne, after a visit to Italy, to study Titian and Raphael, settled at Antwerp. The infanta, Isabella of Spain, sent him ambassador from Flanders to England, 1630, when Charles I. and Buckingham patronized him; and there were few of the English nobility whose galleries he did not ornament. He died immensely rich, in the office of secretary of state for Philip IV. of Spain, in Flanders. (Flanders still remained of the Netherlands to Spain, after the revolt of the Seven Provinces.)

Vandyck, the pupil of Rubens, was patronized by Charles and knighted. He married the beautiful daughter of earl Gowrie, and lived in great splendour. He painted more portraits than historical pieces: and his most celebrated works are the descent from the cross, at Antwerp, and his family group of Charles.

Nicolas Poussin, a Frenchman, studied painting at Rome, and in all his pieces is noted for his strict adherence to classical propriety.

Domenichino, an Italian painter. Poussin considered his communion of St. Jerome, and Raphael's transfiguration, the two best pieces that had ever adorned Rome.

Hollar, the engraver, accompanied lord Arundel from Germany to England, where he offended the roundheads

by perpetuating the faces of so many loyalists, and fled to Antwerp. He afterwards returned, and was patronized by Charles II. Hollar's copies of the old masters are esteemed very valuable: all his works have his name, and a date.

Sir Peter Lely, the English painter, after studying at the Hague, enriched his country with portraits; and the graceful air of his heads, the variety and interest of his postures, and the easy management of his draperies, have long been the praise of men of refined taste.

Inigo Jones, the architect, travelled in Italy at the earl of Pembroke's generous cost. He designed the palace of Whitehall, the church and piazza of Covent-garden, and erected many of the finest private mansions throughout the country. Jones is famous for introducing the Grecian style of architecture, in place of the Gothic, which had hitherto exclusively prevailed in England.

Bishop Hall, the English Seneca, author of 'Meditations' and other equally excellent books, was deprived of his see by the parliament, and retiring to his little farm, spent the rest of his days in obscurity. He ordered himself to be buried in the churchyard, and 'not,' as his will directs, 'in God's house.'

Francis Quarles, the first of our religious poets, became cup-bearer to the queen of Bohemia, daughter of James I., and secretary to archbishop Usher in Ireland. The rebellion of 1641 drove him back to England, when he joined king Charles at Oxford, and had his property, on that account, sequestrated. Of his works, the most popular will always be his 'Emblems.' Many a modern poet has rifled this treasury, which, but for the engraved illustrations, would probably have been better known and appreciated. He displayed a defective taste in mingling images sacred and profane; but, with this single fault (for his quaintness is an ornament), he far excels the pious Herbert, and other serious poets, in smoothness of versification.

fication, and classical neatness. The freshness of the modern poetes, or *maker*, as the poet is still designated in Scotland, is observable in the following:

How happy are the doves that have the
pow'r
Whene'er they please, to spread their airy
wings!
Or cloud-dividing eagles, that can tow'r,
Above the scent of these inferior things!
How happy is the lark, that ev'ry hour
Leaves earth, and then for joy mounts up
and sings!
Had my dull soul but wings as well as
they,
How would I spring from earth, and clip
away,
As wise Astræa did, and scorn this ball of
clay!

And no one can deny praise to one, who, in the unpoetical state of our language in Charles's time, could contrive the following couplet:

See not my frailties Lord but through my
fear,
And look on ev'ry trespass through a tear.

George Herbert, exemplary as a divine, and renowned as a poet, whose poems, called the 'Temple,' will be admired for their piety as long as the English language shall endure. His brother, lord Herbert of Cherbury, was a deist, though a man of talent, and employed in embassies by Charles; but in the civil wars, he ungratefully deserted his master.

Rene Descartes, a Frenchman, who under the patronage of Christina of Sweden, attempted many physical discoveries. He effected a thorough revolution in the science of geometry, by his talented application of algebra thereto; and to him the *modern geometry* is indebted for extended powers and capacities, to which the ancient system could not attain. 'The immediate consequence of his memorable discovery,' says Dr. Lardner, 'was, that geometry at once over-sprang the narrow limits which had circumscribed it for ages, and took a range, the extent of which is literally infinite. Instead of a few simple and particular curves, which had hitherto constituted the only objects of the science, the geometer discussed the properties of whole classes of curves, distinguished and

arranged according to the degrees of the equations which represent them. The variety of curves thus became as infinite as that of equations.' Descartes having thus brought geometry under the dominion of analysis, seems to have been misled into the splendid but visionary notion, that the system of the world and the philosophy of mechanics might, in like manner, be established upon a theory arising out of a few first assumed axioms. His doctrine of vortices, therefore, and other hypotheses have been unable to stand the test of truth; and posterity is indebted to him only, and this is enough, for showing the powers of analysis, which must now be allowed to stand at the head of at least all physical learning, and for reducing the laws of refraction, called dioptrics, to a science. The philosophy of Descartes, which is a compound of the Peripatetic and Baconian, prevailed every where on the continent until Voltaire supplanted it by the Newtonian system.

Burton, an Oxford divine, who, after being a martyr to hypochondriasis, wrote the 'Anatomy of Melancholy' to relieve it. This work has been for years the delight of the learned, the solace of the indolent, and the refuge of the uninformed. It was once a scarce book; and until Sterne was accused by Dr. Ferriar of stealing greatly from it, was in the hands of few. Since that period it has emerged from obscurity; and notwithstanding its quaintness, and vast accumulation of authorities, the fascination of its wit, fancy, and sterling sense, have borne down all censures, and extorted praise from the first writers in the English language.

Edmund Gunter, a Welsh divine, and professor of Gresham-college, who contrived that valuable rule of proportion, called Gunter's scale, which affords an easy method of combining arithmetic and geometry, especially adapted for popular use. He also acquired celebrity by inventing the Sector, and a portable quadrant for astronomical uses.

Dr. Peter Heylyn, fellow of Magdalen college, Oxford, who, through the patronage of Laud, was promoted to a stall, and presented with the livings of Houghton and Hemmingford. He was a man of solid and clear judgment, and with considerable classical erudition combined much taste and wit. His 'Microcosmos,' or description of the world, gradually swelled in each subsequent edition, from a pocket-book to a cumbrous folio; when it took the title of *Cosmography*, and was long very popular.

Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, the principal adviser of Charles, of whom mention has been made.—*Sir Edward Coke*, the eminent judge, whose animosity to Raleigh was implacable. His 'Commentary on Littleton's Treatise on Tenures' forms a vast repository of legal learning, and his fame as a lawyer is said to rest upon that.—*John Hampden*, the first to oppose in the matter of ship-money, who, had he not been early cut off, would in all probability, have forestalled Cromwell in his usurpation.—*Lord Fairfax*, one of the parliamentary leaders, who, though he did not interfere in the king's trial, was hypocritically engaged with Harrison in prayer, during his execution.—*Usher*, archbishop of Armagh, noted for his piety, meekness, and integrity, was the constant friend of the unhappy Charles, and was even courted by Cromwell. He lost every thing in the great rebellion.—*Sir Henry Wotton*, provost of

Eton, celebrated for his wit and general talents.—*Speed*, the antiquary, who wrote a valuable History of England, to the end of the Normans. He was originally a tailor, of whom it has been wittily said that 'he left the goose for the quill.'—*George Sandys*, son of the archbishop of York, who published his travels in the Holy Land, and whose paraphrases of the Psalms of David have been much praised even by Pope.—*Mussinger*, of Salisbury, after completing his education at Oxford, wrote fourteen plays, besides assisting Fletcher and others in theirs. He is allowed to rank next to Shakespeare, as respects nature and power of description; but his tragedy is defective in portraying the passions, and his comedy devoid of playfulness and humour.—*Edward Pococke*, chaplain to the English at Aleppo, was the earliest promoter of oriental literature, publishing many Arabic and other eastern works, and greatly illustrating the Scriptures.—*Selden*, the antiquary, who, though on the parliament side in the Commons, contrived to befriend the king. Grotius and Clarendon unite in pronouncing him one whom none can flatter, praise him as he will.—*Thomas Fuller*, a divine who espoused the royal cause, and even compelled the parliamentarians to raise the siege of Basing-house. His 'Church History,' and 'Worthies of England,' are his best known works; and the latter is an especially valuable book.

INVENTIONS, &c.

Newspapers, 1642, first published in England: *Gazettes* in 1665. The name gazette is, in England, confined to that species of newspaper issued by government authority, and containing royal proclamations, &c.: there is only one, called 'The London Gazette,' which comes forth every Tuesday and Friday. The word is derived from *gazetta*, a Venetian coin, which was the usual price of the first newspapers. The duty levied by the stamp-office on English newspapers in 1835, was 360,000, or nearly 1000*l.* per day.

Excise first levied on beer by the English parliament, 1643. Excise is a duty imposed on things produced or manufactured in the kingdom, in opposition to *Customs*, which is an impost on things of foreign growth or manufacture, when imported from abroad. Excise is from the Dutch word *accuse*, tribute; and Pym, the republican, was the man who introduced a tax that has been ever viewed with odium, as a most arbitrary one, by the English nation. It was only to have lasted

during the civil war; but Cromwell found it too productive a source of revenue to be so soon relinquished.

The French Academy founded by Richelieu.—*The Barometer* completed by Toricelli.—*Pendulums* first applied to clocks by Huygens, 1649.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1623, Amurath IV.; 1640, Ibrahim; 1649, Mahomet IV. *Popes*. 1623, Urban VIII.; 1644, Innocent X. *France*.

1610, Louis XIII.; 1643, Louis XIV. *Russia*. 1613, Michael Fædorovitch; 1645, Alexis Michaelovitch. *Sweden*. 1611, Gustavus Adolphus; 1633, Christina. *Denmark and Norway*. 1588, Christiern IV.; 1648, Frederick III. *Spain and Portugal*. 1621, Philip IV. *Germany*. 1619, Ferdinand II.; 1637, Ferdinand III. *Portugal alone*. 1640, John IV.

SECTION III.

CHARLES II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1649 TO 1685—36 YEARS.

Personal History. Charles II. was born 1630. He was nineteen years of age when he received news at the Hague, whither he had been sent at the beginning of the civil war, of the tragical death of his parent; and at the invitation of the Scots, who wished to wipe away the stain of their treachery to his predecessor, he crossed to Scotland, and was crowned at Scone, 1651. Charles here saw himself surrounded by all the jealousy of the republicans, and the fanaticism of the presbyterians, and these subjected him to so many mortifications, that he willingly saw a large party of them beaten while fighting on his side, at Dunbar; and he ever afterwards entertained an invincible aversion against them. The approach of Cromwell rendering his abode in Scotland unsafe, he took the spirited resolution of passing that general's army, and entering England, hoping there to be joined by the royalists. Cromwell, however, immediately pursued him, and in a battle at Worcester wholly destroyed his hopes. The prince fled, disguised as a peasant; and after a series of romantic adventures, of which he afterwards dictated an account to Mr. Pepys, escaped to France. Here and in Holland he remained eleven years an exile; during which he gained little in morals, surrounded as he was by fortune-hunting and ill-bred men, who encouraged, merely to obtain his favour, the natural bent of his disposition towards sensual indulgences.

Charles married, after the restoration, Catherine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he had no issue, and with whom he was by no means cordial. He was in his person tall, dark in complexion, and urbane and dignified in general deportment. His judgment was clear, his understanding extensive, his conversation animated, and his talent for repartee and merriment inexhaustible. He was also easy of access, polite, and affable. His greatest enemies admit that he was a civil husband, an affectionate father, and an indulgent master; and that he was ever averse from cruelty. He was, however, indolent, profuse, careless of glory in its correct sense, and wholly regardless of what the better classes of his subjects thought of him. The hypocrisy of the various sectaries had occasioned him to regard his religious duties as of secondary import; though in his latter days he was in this respect more exemplary. If the period of his rule was marked by the love of gaiety, splendour, and luxury, and by a general dissolution of manners, the cause may be looked for in the previous harass of the public mind by civil commotion, and in the puritanical restraint on moral habits that had been enforced during Cromwell's sway.

Political History. For four years after the execution of Charles, England was ruled nominally by the Long Parliament. During this curious democracy, Cromwell was engaged with the army in subduing Ireland, which still adhered to monarchy; and with the title of lord lieutenant, he commenced a most sanguinary attack upon the enemies of republicanism. At Drogheda alone he put, in cold blood, nearly 2500 persons of the garrison to the sword. Wexford ran with the blood of defenceless men, women, and children, whom his relentless soldiers had butchered in the streets; and in any town, where the slightest resistance had been made to the parliamentary demands, the chief people were seized, and either cut down with the sword, or shot. Having thus paralyzed rather than subdued the Irish, he left Ireton deputy, and hastened to attack the young prince Charles in Scotland. The victories of Dunbar and Worcester ensued; and Cromwell, on his triumphant entry into London, was declared worthy of a pension of 4000*l.* per annum for his services. In a few months, however, that ambitious man made no secret of his desire to supply the vacant throne in his own person: accordingly, in April 1653, he entered the house of commons with some soldiers, pulled the speaker from his chair, bade his men take away 'that bauble, the mace,' and then locked the doors. Thus terminated the famous Long Parliament; and another assembly, named Barebone's Parliament, because a prating leather-seller of that name was in it, consisting of 142 ignorant fellows, completely at the aspirant's command, succeeded. This unskilled rabble, finding the affairs of state too hard for them, commenced a resignation of their seats; whereon Cromwell angrily dismissed such as had not retired, and was declared Protector of the Realm, by what was termed a 'council' of his own officers.

At the age of fifty-four, Cromwell was invested with the high office he had obtained by so many crimes, December 1653, in Westminster-hall. He applied himself with vigour to the management of public affairs; conciliated Holland, Denmark, Portugal, and Sweden; and displayed a constant wish to render the French nation favourable to the English interests. With Spain he made war, and obtained, as the only result, the island of Jamaica; meanwhile admiral Blake, in the Mediterranean, considerably advanced the protector's government in the estimation of foreigners, declaring that he contended, not for Cromwell, but for his country; which, with or without a king, required that her friends should fight her battles. At home every thing was conducted by military domination: majors-general governed the provinces, a tenth was levied on all who had borne arms for the king, and suspected persons were tried by military law. The first parliament, after Barebone's, threatened the dethronement of the protector; but the one he assembled in 1656 was more obsequious, and would have even given him the title of king, had not his best friends persuaded him to decline the boon. Conspiracies began now to be formed against his life, and several cavaliers were executed on suspicion: one of these, Dr. Hewett, a clergyman, had been interceded for in vain by Cromwell's favourite daughter, Mrs. Claypole. The latter dying soon after, the protector's remorse became excessive; and when a pamphlet had appeared, entitled 'Killing no Murder,' wherein the lawfulness of tyrannicide was enforced by colonel Titus, who had once been his friend, he imagined his safety endangered by every one about his person. He constantly wore armour under his clothes, carried concealed weapons of defence, and refused to tell his attendants, when he took leave of them for the night, in what chamber he designed to sleep. A sluggish fever was the result of such habitual terrors, and Cromwell's robust constitution, still further weakened by a tertian ague, eventually gave way in the autumn of 1658. He died in September of that year, after holding sovereign power nearly five years; his last days forming

thus a memorable contrast to those of him whose death he had compassed. Cromwell went to his grave with all the horrors of a condemned culprit; while Charles quitted life without fear, firm in his panoply of innocence, and in the conscientious conviction that his intentions, however misinterpreted, had been constantly pure.

With great pomp the Protector's body was carried from his residence (Somerset-house) and interred in the chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster; but after the restoration it was exhumed, and hung on the gallows. His son Richard, a mild and unambitious youth, though proclaimed protector instantly after his father's death, resigned his office willingly in seven months; and the republican officers then attempted to govern by the Rump Parliament, which had been so abruptly dissolved by Cromwell. General Lambert, however, again put it down, and established a military form of rule, the three principals being himself, Fleetwood who had married a daughter of Cromwell, and Monk, governor of Scotland. This triumvirate being soon at variance, Monk entered into correspondence with the exiled monarch, and marched from Scotland towards the south with a large force. Lambert set forward to oppose him, but was deserted by his soldiers, and arrested by the surviving members of that house of commons which had been expelled in 1648, and which Monk instantly reassembled. In April, 1660, the parliament agreed to recal the king; the proposal was received by the nation with the greatest joy; the peers reassembled; and Charles entering London May 29, 1660, was received every where with demonstrations of loyalty and good will.

Charles's first measures were prudent and conciliatory. An act of indemnity was passed, from which alone were excepted all who had an immediate concern in the late king's death; a settled revenue was for the first time agreed upon; the army was reduced; and an act of uniformity passed with respect to religion. By the latter, the clergy of the established church, who had been superseded mostly by presbyterians, were restored to their livings.

The king's revenue was soon seen to be too small for his expenditure, enlarged as that was by a natural carelessness, and the claims made upon him by needy friends; and he was compelled to sell Dunkirk, which had been taken from the French by Cromwell, to liquidate his debts. In 1663 a rupture took place with Holland, which was not healed before a Dutch fleet, under de Ruyter, sailed up the Thames, and, to the consternation of the people, took Sheerness, destroyed a chain of ships drawn across the Medway to stop the progress of the enemy, and then attacked Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Harwich. The whole coast was in alarm; but the French, who declared on the side of Holland, aided her not with her fleet, or the consequences would have been fatal. The domestic calamities of the plague, and fire of London, added to the disasters of the period. Lord chancellor Clarendon, the king's chief adviser, but whom he by no means loved, became hereupon so unpopular, that Charles dismissed him, and he sought safety in voluntary exile abroad. A triple alliance, between England, Holland, and Sweden, for the purpose of checking the ambition of Louis XIV. followed; a measure planned by Sir William Temple, a very clear-headed politician. The thoughtless profusion of Charles, however, rendered him a mere pensioner of Louis himself, who secretly supported him in many attempts to keep up and extend his prerogative.

In 1670 the king threw himself into the hands of five unprincipled ministers called, from the initials of their names, *the cabal*, whose main object was to rule without the parliament. A visit which Charles received at this period from his sister, the duchess of Orleans, was rendered subservient to French policy by means of one of her attendant ladies, an extremely beautiful woman. The king created her duchess of Portsmouth, and amidst all his other attach-

ments, she retained an influence over him, which kept him steadily attached to France. The party troubles of Charles's reign commenced about this time, by a declaration on the part of the duke of York, the next heir to the crown, that he was a Roman catholic. Soon after, the ministry broke the triple alliance, and planned a rupture with the Dutch; and, as the king would not ask the parliament for money to carry on the projected war, he caused the exchequer to be shut up, 1672, and, by several other arbitrary proceedings, gave great offence and alarm to the nation. As the attack upon the Dutch was by no means successful, the Cabal was dissolved, and peace was made with Holland.

Three years of parliamentary and ministerial disagreement now ensued; until, in 1677, Charles performed a popular act, by marrying his niece to the prince of Orange, thus making common interest with protestant Holland: he also forwarded the general peace of Nimeguen, 1678. The same year was distinguished by the pretended discovery of a papist-plot for the assassination of the king, and the restoration of the catholic faith. Notwithstanding the infamous characters of Oates and Bedloe, and the improbable nature of their disclosures, their tale, supported by a belief in the secret influence of a catholic faction, met with universal credit; and the parliament exhibited nearly as much zeal on the occasion, as the vulgar. Many catholic lords were committed; Coleman, the duke of York's secretary, and several priests were hanged; and the earl of Stafford, a venerable nobleman, was beheaded. The duke of York fled to Brussels, and a bill for his exclusion from the throne passed the commons. Such was the state of the country, that Charles was obliged to give way to some popular measures; and that palladium of civil liberty, the Habeas Corpus act, passed in this session.

The temper of the parliament now became such, that the king was induced to dissolve it. The epithets of *whig* and *tory* were vigorously applied; and the two next assemblies were so restive, so determined on the exclusion of the duke of York, and so opposed to Charles's views, that, like his father, he resolved to govern without the commons. The presbyterian party was certainly labouring to thwart the court; and a dangerous colour was given to many of its acts, by the discovery that several men of title, not famous for any religious faith, were the counsellors of those sectaries. A man named College was executed for a conspiracy against the king, and the famous lord Shaftesbury was tried, but acquitted. The nonconformists generally were treated with rigour; and a step of great moment in the progress of Charles to arbitrary power, was the instituting *quo warrantos*, by which most of the corporations in the kingdom were called upon to resign their charters, in order to receive them back so modelled as to render them much more dependant than before. These measures at length produced the *Rye-house plot*, which certainly intended resistance; but that the assassination of the king was ever formally projected seems extremely doubtful. It assuredly formed no part of the intention of Lord William Russel, whose execution, with that of Algernon Sydney, on account of it, forms one of the most disgraceful events of this reign.

Charles was at this time as absolute as any monarch in Europe; and had he been an active prince, might have transmitted to his successors his unshorn prerogative. Scotland was compelled to embrace episcopacy, though it had been thrown into commotion, at different periods of the reign, on the mere threat of such a measure; and the relics of the covenanters were suppressed with great severity. It is true that the latter had maintained and displayed a spirit of mutiny and sedition; and that Cameron and Cargill, two famous preachers, had publicly excommunicated and anathematized the king, calling on their hearers to renounce their allegiance to him. Cameron was killed by

the troops in an action at Air-Moss: Cargill was taken and hanged. Charles is said to have been anxious at length to stay these harsh proceedings; but his design was frustrated by an apoplectic fit, 1685, of which he expired in the fifty-fifth year of his age. In his last moments he received the sacrament according to the rites of the Romish church; and his remains were interred in Westminster-abbey.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Boscobel. King Charles, after the defeat of Worcester, rode off towards Staffordshire with the duke of Buckingham, Lauderdale, Derby, Wilmot, and other staunch adherents; and on arriving at the house called White Ladies, the family belonging to which was absent, he was advised by Mr. Giffard, a catholic, to put on a country fellow's habit, and otherwise disguise himself, and then proceed with the brother of one of his men-servants alone, that so he might reach the coast unobserved. Lord Wilmot, therefore, rode towards London, and the rest of the king's friends towards Scotland, leaving Charles in the care of the man Richard Penderell, who cut off the king's hair, and put on him a leathern doublet, and green jerkin, and remained with him all day in a thick wood on his master's estate at Boscobel, not far from White Ladies. The first night had been passed in Boscobel-house; on the second Charles began his journey on foot to the Severn; but he had no sooner reached the house of Mr. Wolfe, than he was persuaded to return to Boscobel, and there lie concealed, until the parliamentary soldiers had left the neighbourhood. While at Mr. Wolfe's, he lay all day in a barn; and at night was supplied with food from the house. With Penderell, he retraced his steps to Boscobel. 'So we set out,' says the king, 'as soon as it was dark; but as we came by the mill again (where, in the night before, the miller had shouted after them, taking them for thieves), we had no mind to be questioned a second time; and so, asking Penderell if he could swim or not, and how deep the river was, he said it was a very scurvy river, not easy to be passed in all places, and that he could not swim. I told

him that, as the river was but a little one, I would undertake to help him over; and going over some closes to the river-side, entered the water myself first, to see whether I could cross it, not knowing how to swim. I found it was but a little above my middle; and thereupon taking Penderell by the hand, I pulled him through.' They regained Boscobel, and found William Penderell returned from conducting lord Wilmot to the house of a catholic gentleman near Wolverhampton, named Whitegreave, who had volunteered to hide any of the royal party.

William then told the king that one of his own officers, major Carlis (also a catholic), was in Boscobel-house, and desirous of aiding him; whereupon Charles desired to see him, and was advised by him not to remain in-doors, as the soldiers of Cromwell were near, and would probably search the house. 'He then told me,' continues the king, 'he knew but one way how to pass the day following: and that was to get up into a great oak in a pretty thick place in Boscobel-wood, where we might see round about us; for the enemy would certainly search all the wood for people who had made their escape. Of which proposition I approving, we (that is to say Carlis and I) went out of the house, taking with us some victuals for the whole day,—viz. bread, cheese, small-beer, and nothing else,—and got up into the great oak in question, which had been lopped some three or four years before, and being grown again very bushy, could not be seen through. While in the tree, we saw soldiers going up and down the wood, searching.' At night they descended, and hurried off, as agreed upon, to Mr. Whitegreave's, seven miles from Boscobel; where the king

was agreeably surprised to see lord Wilmot again. Him he despatched immediately to a colonel Lane's, six miles from Mr. Whitegreave's, and was not a little pleased to find on his return, that the colonel's sister had agreed to go on horseback to Bristol, on pretence of visiting a cousin; and that she would allow the king to follow her as her servant. 'So,' says the king, 'the next morning I went away to colonel Lane's, where I changed my clothes into a little better habit, like a serving-man, being a kind of gray cloth suit; and Mrs. Lane and I commenced our journey towards Bristol, resolving to lie at a place called Long Marson, in the vale of Evesham. But we had not gone two hours on our way, before the mare I rode on cast a shoe; so we were forced to tide on to a scattering village, whose name begins with something like Long; and as I was holding my horse's foot, I asked the smith what news? He told me there was no news, since that good news of the beating of those rogues the Scots. I asked him if there were none of the English taken, that joined the Scots? He answered, that he did not hear if that *rogue Charles Stuart* was taken, but some of the others were taken—but not Charles Stuart. I told him if that *rogue* was taken, he deserved to be hanged more than all the rest; upon which he said I spoke like an honest man; and so we parted.'

Mrs. Lane's sister and her husband accompanied the pair as far as Stratford, but there left them: the first night they slept at Long Marson, and the next at Cirencester; on the third day they reached Mrs. Lane's cousin's, Mr. Norton's, beyond Bristol. 'Here, as soon as ever I came,' continues the king, Mrs. Lane called the butler of the house, a very honest fellow, whose name was Pope, and who had served Tom Gerbage, a groom of my bedchamber, when I was a boy at Richmond, and bade him take care of *William Jackson*, as having been lately sick of an ague, whereof she said I was still weak. And the truth was, my late fatigue and want of

sustenance had made me a little pale. Pope had also been a trooper in my father's army; but I was not to be known in the house for any thing but Mrs. Lane's servant. Pope took great care of me that night, I not eating, as I should have done, with the servants, on account of my not being well. The next morning I rose pretty early, having a very good stomach, and went to the buttery-hatch to get my breakfast; where I found Pope and two or three more men; and we all fell to eating bread and butter, to which he gave us very good ale and sack.' One of the party having been at the battle of Worcester, and on the king's side, Charles, when he found this out, hurried from the buttery-hatch, a movement which evidently excited the suspicion of Pope; for the king having retired to his bedchamber, Mr. Lascelles, a gentleman who had joined Mrs. Lane's riding-party, came to him and said, 'I am afraid Pope knows you; for he says very positively that you are the king; but I have denied it.' Charles hereupon sent for the butler, and confessed he was right, and Pope instantly proposed going to meet lord Wilmot (who had been appointed to meet the king at Mr. Norton's), in order to prevent his arrival until dark; as many of Cromwell's party were in the village. When Wilmot was brought in at nightfall, he suggested that it would be to Charles's advantage to remove from his present neighbourhood; and he accordingly induced Mrs. Lane to proceed in the same manner as before to Trent, where a Mr. Wyndham was ready to further the king's designs.

Mr. Wyndham, on the king's arrival, agreed with a merchant at Lyme to have a ship in readiness to cross to France; and to Lyme accordingly Charles rode on one and the same horse with Mrs. Judith Connesby, a cousin of Mr. Wyndham's, the king riding foremost. The ship not being found when the party came to Lyme, they rode on to Bridport, where they were startled by the entry of 1500 of Cromwell's

soldiers, who were about to embark for Jersey. Charles, however, thought it best to go boldly to an inn, and mix with the servants; and soon finding from lord Wilmot that the merchant was unwilling to provide the vessel, he forthwith returned to Trent. Colonel Philips then procured a ship at Southampton; but unfortunately it was pressed to transport the soldiers to Jersey; and the colonel offered to take the king to a Mrs. Hyde's, at Heale, near Salisbury, who for several days concealed him in the recesses of her house, which had been purposely constructed for catholic recusants. After four or five days' stay here, colonel Gunter having provided a ship at Shoreham, the royal party started early one morning for that place. 'So,' says the king, 'when we came to a place called Brighthelmston, we met the master of the ship, in company with the merchant whom colonel Gunter had got to hire the vessel for me, the merchant only knowing me as a person who had escaped from the battle of Worcester: and as we were all together, I observed that the master looked very much at me, and, that, as soon as we had supped, he called the merchant aside, telling him that he had not dealt fairly with him: for though he had given a very fair price for carrying over that gentleman, yet he had not been clear with him; for, says he, he is the king, and I very well know him to be so. He took my ship in 1648 (which was when I commanded my father's fleet; and I very kindly gave that and others liberty again); but I will venture my life and all for him, and set him safely ashore in France.'

We sat up all that night at the inn, drinking beer and smoking tobacco; and here, as I was standing after supper by the fireside, leaning my hand upon the back of a chair, all the rest being gone into another room, the master of the inn came in, and fell a-talking with me. Upon a sudden, he kissed my hand that was upon the chair, and said to me, 'God bless your

majesty, wheresoever you go: I don't doubt before I die to be a lord, and my wife a lady!' So I laughed, and went away into the next room, not desiring then any further discourse; however, I thought it best to trust him with my secret, and he proved honest.' At four in the morning the party proceeded to Shoreham; and Charles, with a haste natural to his situation, got on board the vessel which waited for him, and laid himself on his hammock to sleep. 'But I was no sooner laid down,' says the king, 'than the master came to me, fell down upon his knees, and kissed my hands, telling me he knew me very well, and would venture his life to set me down safe in France.' As the ship was bound for Poole to carry sea-coal, the captain persuaded Charles to request him, in the presence of his crew, to land him and his friend Wilnot in France, as two merchants wishing to escape their creditors; this was accordingly done, and the fugitive monarch was landed at Feschamps, without a discovery by the owners that the vessel had gone out of her course. The king soon reached Rouen, whence he departed for Paris, his mother, queen Henrietta, meeting him on the way.

It is singular that the principal persons who assisted in this escape were Roman catholics, Mr. Giffard, Carlis, the Penderells, the Lanes, Gunter, and the captain of the ship (Tetttersell), not omitting Pope; a circumstance which considerably tended to rivet the affections of Charles to his subjects of that faith. That their fidelity was disinterested is evident, when it is remembered that very large sums of money were offered by the parliament to such as would deliver up the king alive or dead.

The Plague of London, 1665. The plague of eastern nations visited London in this eventful year. The former infectious diseases, which had been designated by the generic term of plague, had varied greatly in character, and might be considered, with the exception of the black death, as ende-

mic affections of the island. A violent plague, imported from Egypt, had raged in Holland 1663; and though all intercourse with that country had been forbidden, the disorder was brought over by some contraband traffic 1664, at the close of which year three persons died suddenly in Westminster with undoubted symptoms of the affection. A frosty winter prevented the rapid spread of the infection; but in the ensuing spring it burst forth in the parish of St. Giles in all its horrors. The injudicious practice of closing houses, and thus shutting up the patients in a pestilential atmosphere, (a measure frequently enforced, but often a voluntary one,) caused perhaps the majority of deaths which ensued. In August the mortality amounted to 8000 weekly, the bodies being carried out of the city by night in carts, and buried beyond the walls in immense pits, without funeral rites, and, in most instances, without a particle of clothing. So grievous was the panic, that the ties of natural affection were dissolved; and it was no uncommon circumstance to see a son or daughter, who had stolen for a momentary change of air from the imprisonment of their houses, refused admittance to their homes, and left to perish in the streets. No less than 100,000 died; and it was happy that the affection spread no farther from London than Deptford.—The disorder began with a fit of shivering and vomiting: a painful sensation was felt at the breast soon after, and a burning fever, with its common symptoms, succeeded. If the fever proceeded, either death in three days ensued, after delirium, or a tumour in the groin, hastily forming, discharged the morbid matter, and saved the patient's life. Where no fever occurred, or such was checked, purple spots appeared in every part of the body, and almost instant death was the result.

The Fire of London, 1666. The city had scarcely recovered from the desolation occasioned by the plague, when it was almost totally laid in ruins by a fire, which broke out in a baker's

shop in Pudding-lane, Sept. 2d; and in a few hours destroyed Billingsgate ward. Before morning, the fire had crossed Thames-street, and burned down St. Magnus' church: thence it proceeded to London-bridge, and having consumed a great pile of buildings thereon, was stopped by the want of other combustibles. That day (Sunday) the flames seized on Garlick-hithe; and destroying Cannon-street, invaded Cornhill and the Exchange. On Monday, Tower-street, Gracechurch-street, Dowgate, Old Fish-street, Watling-street, and Threadneedle-street, were a series of ruins; from all which the fire at once broke into Cheapside. That extensive street, ignited at all points, was one sea of flame; and in a short space of time, the cathedral of St. Paul's was enveloped by the dreadful scourge. It took fire at the top, from the mere heat of the surrounding atmosphere; and the great beams and massive stones breaking through and falling upon the church of St. Faith beneath, that ancient edifice was speedily in flames. Paternoster-row, Newgate-street, Ludgate-hill, the Old Bailey, Milk-street, Wood-street, Foster-lane, Cateaton-street, St. Martin's-le-grand, and part of Aldersgate-street, with innumerable petty lanes, courts, and alleys, successively fell a sacrifice; and even so far westward as Fleet-street, the ravages of the fire were fatally marked. The furious element had now reached its greatest extent, and was several miles in compass. The vast clouds of smoke so obscured the sun, that it was either wholly hidden, or appeared, when dimly seen, as red as blood. The flames reached an immense way up into the air; and the illumination thus occasioned, was distinctly observed at Jedburgh, in Scotland. Some of the light ashes were carried sixteen miles. Guildhall exhibited a singular appearance: the oak with which it was built was so solid, that it would not flame, but burned like charcoal, so that the building appeared for several hours like

an enchanted palace of gold, or burnished brass. At last, on Wednesday morning, when every one expected that the suburbs would also be demolished, the fire began to abate; partly owing to the wind ceasing, and partly to the insulation of houses on fire by gunpowder. King Charles was actively engaged during the visitation, day and night, with many of the lords, superintending the labours of the firemen, and aiding the magistrates and military in the preservation of order. It was finally ascertained that 13,000 houses, eighty-seven churches, fifty-two halls, four stone-bridges, three city-gates, St. Paul's cathedral, the Custom-house, Guildhall, Exchange, Gaol of Newgate, Bridewell, and numerous other edifices public and private, to the value of eleven millions sterling, including wares and goods lost, had been swallowed up by this awful visitation. It was never certainly known whether the fire was contrived or accidental: the papists had the credit of originating it, as the monument of London, erected to commemorate the event, still avouches. As there are few human calamities which, if rightly viewed, produce not their share of good, so London, in its restored state, with widened streets and more commodious buildings, gained greatly in beauty and convenience; while the materials of stone and brick being substituted for wood, rendered the spread of infectious disorders slow and difficult, and, with the airiness of the great thoroughfares, added much to the salubrity of the metropolis.

The Restoration, 1660. It was no sooner known on the continent that the English had returned to their ancient loyalty, than Spain invited Charles to take shipping for his country at one of her ports in the Netherlands, France offered Calais, and the States-general sent deputies to request he would repair at once to the Hague. The latter offer he accepted, remarking with his native humour, that 'it was wondrous to see all the world so

piteously inclined to him:' and certainly it appeared as if, on a sudden, the whole of Europe had roused itself to give joy to a prince who had, in many years of anxiety and absolute distress, lived as one forgotten of the world; and whose condition had been singularly slighted, when most deserving of commiseration.

Charles embarked on board the fleet, of which his brother, the duke of York, took the command; and having landed at Dover, hastened with a few attendants to Rochester. From this town it was agreed the royal procession should commence. Accordingly, on horseback, supported on one side by the duke of York and on the other by the duke of Gloucester, his brothers, he, on his birthday, May 29, quitted the inn, whereat he had passed the previous night, for the great metropolis. The road was every where strewed with flowers; triumphal arches, crowned with garlands, were erected at almost every mile of the way; in all the villages, butts of wine were set running; and the fronts of the houses were hung with pieces of tapestry, and (commemorative of Boscobel tree) with immense boughs of oak, having the apples gilded; while the inhabitants, in a sort of military array, took their station on the paths, armed with halberds, and any thing which would give them the semblance of a temporary militia. Many of the trainbands of London had drawn themselves up at the top of Shooter's-hill, arrayed in costly suits, and purposing to accompany the king to the city. On Blackheath, the main body of the army, under the command of Monk, was posted, and received the monarch with a shout, that displayed how truly his restoration was the national wish. From this point to London, so vast was the assemblage of persons, that the king was oftentimes carried by the press, as if in the air, though those about him tried by good words, and often by blows, to keep off the crowd; but when the royal party had reached the city boundaries, the

mayor and aldermen, with the trainbands, all in new clothing, kept the way clear, and made a part in the procession to Whitehall.

All that day, bonfires were burning in the principal streets of the city ; at which the crowds amused themselves by roasting rumps of beef and mutton, in derision of the discomfited Rump parliament : while the butchers, at the Maypole in the Strand, sacrificed a quantity of sheep and oxen, amid the clang of marrow-bones and cleavers, and the clashing of their knives of slaughter.

The three Plots ; Oates, Meal, and Rye. The plot called *Oates's*, 1678, was the conspiracy of a few needy and worthless men, who took advantage of the temper of the times, which ran violently against the catholics, to get bread though at the cost of blood. The king, while walking in the park one day, was warned by Kirby, a chemist, to keep with the company, as two men had agreed to take his life. Dr. Tongue, he said, had made known the plot to him ; and that divine, on examination, gave up one Titus Oates, also a clergyman, but of bad character, as his informant. Oates, who had recently become a protestant, declared that he had been privy to the design of some jesuits to overthrow the government, and kill the king ; he solemnly, before Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, a magistrate, affirmed to all the minutæ of a most terrific conspiracy. Charles from the first doubted the veracity of the man ; but the assassination of Godfrey, whose body, undeprived of its clothes and some jewels, was found in a ditch at Primrose-hill, raised the voice of the whole nation against the papists, and the king was compelled to go with the stream. To deny the reality of the plot was to be an accomplice ; each hour teemed with new surmises ; invasions from abroad, insurrections at home, every thing destructive of the country's peace was anticipated ; and all that Oates and one Bedloe swore, as to the papists having caused the fire of 1666, was credited to the

very letter. Amid protestations of innocence, and sufficient proof of the perjuries of Oates and his party, many jesuits, and even some who were not catholics, suffered death ; and it was not until the queen herself was charged by Oates with a participation in the plot, that the indignant Charles ordered him to be arrested. The parliament again liberated him, and he was permitted to enjoy 1200*l.* a year, and apartments in Whitehall ; but in the next reign he was convicted of perjury and pilloried, and then sank into contempt.—*The Meal-tub Plot*, 1679. One Dangerfield, a fellow who had been burned in the hand, pilloried, and publicly whipped for various crimes, who had been fined for cheats, and even outlawed for felony, pretended that he had been employed by the catholics to betray the conspiracies of the presbyterian party against the throne ; but finding their own designs the more dangerous, he determined on informing against the catholics. The plot derived its name from some papers relative to it being found in a meal-tub : and it only served to foment the hatred of the people towards the papists, and to prepare the public mind for the third exaggerated scheme.—*The Rye-house Plot*, 1683, was that third ; and it received somewhat of a foundation from the fact that a very large portion of the people, including many noblemen, had resolved, in the event of Charles's death, to oppose the succession of his brother, the duke of York, on account of his being a catholic. Charles happened to be seized with an illness which threatened his life ; whereupon the duke of Monmouth (the king's natural son), with lords Russel and Grey, instigated by the restless lord Shaftesbury, attempted secretly to raise the country, each in his department, and according to his local influence. Monmouth assailed the men of rank in Cheshire ; lord Russel those of the west ; and Shaftesbury undertook the city. An inferior class of men, with colonel Rumsey, an old

roundhead, as their leader, considering this a fit moment to attempt a restoration of the commonwealth, agreed, though without any authority from Monmouth's party, to act in concert with it. Rumsey even resolved on killing the king, who was now fast recovering from his ailment; and it was determined to overturn a cart in the road by the Rye-house, a farm belonging to a maltster who was in the plot, on the day that the king should pass in his coach to Newmarket races. Charles, however, went by another road, and returned from Newmarket past the Rye-house eight days earlier than was expected, and so escaped. One Keiling, a salter, turning evidence, revealed these and other circumstances; and the consequence was the arrest of the leaders of both parties. Monmouth absconded; but Russel, Algernon Sydney, and other known opponents of the duke of York, were taken, brought to trial, and executed. The excellent lady Russel, who had in vain thrown herself at Charles's feet in her husband's behalf, soothed his last hours with a philosophical and Christian spirit, not expected in her sex: and the unfortunate nobleman went to the scaffold without the slightest appearance of fear. In his last speech, he strenuously maintained his abhorrence of the king's murder; though he did not conceal his repugnance to the duke's succession. Sydney, who was a consistent republican, and had alike opposed Cromwell's elevation and Charles's restoration, met his death 'glorying in the good old cause' he observed, 'in which, from early youth, he had enlisted himself.'

Persecutions for imputed Witchcraft. A firm belief existed in this reign, throughout Scotland more especially, that witchcraft was a substantial crime; and multitudes of accused persons were burned by order of the magistrates. In a village near Berwick, fourteen were so destroyed; and it even became the study of men of science to distinguish by proper symptoms a true witch from a pretended

one. The floating of such as passed the water-ordeal was taken as a sure proof of guilt; and other equally absurd tests were regarded as unerring guides to the witchfinder. One Hopkins caused, by his informations, upwards of eighty poor creatures to be hanged in Suffolk, 1650.

Violence of the Covenanters. In 1650 these fanatical separatists hanged at Edinburgh, on a gallows thirty feet high, the noble-minded James Graham, marquis of Montrose, because he had rejected their confederacy, and joined the episcopal side.

The horrible assassination of Dr. Sharpe, archbishop of St. Andrew's, 1679, was regarded amongst them as their great and glorious work. That prelate had severely punished many for their attendance at conventicles; and his agent, Carnichael, became an object of universal hatred amongst the Presbyterians. A company of these, with the intention of inflicting a heavy chastisement on the agent, waylaid him near St. Andrew's; but while waiting for their prey, they were surprised at seeing the archbishop's coach approach, and immediately interpreted the incident as a declaration of the secret purpose of Providence against him. They dragged him from the carriage, tore him from the arms of his daughter, who interposed with cries and tears, and piercing him with redoubled wounds, left him dead in the road.

The Dissenters' Acts. Four acts of parliament were passed in this reign to stay the progress of dissent:

1. *The Conventicle act*, which inflicted a fine on any person above sixteen who attended a conventicle where five were assembled;
2. *the Corporation act*, which forbade that any one should hold office in any city, unless he had received the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the rites of the church of England, within a year of his appointment;
3. *the Five Mile act*, which ordained that no dissenting teacher should come within five miles of any

place where he had preached, after the act of oblivion; and 4. *the Test act*, which excluded from all offices, civil and military, all persons not qualifying by receiving the sacrament. (The sacramental test was abolished only by George IV.) These restraints, while they operated as a bond of iron upon the English nonconformists, only served to inflame the zeal of the puritans in Scotland, who, regarding episcopacy as sheer popery, now resolved to exterminate it even by the sword.

Rise of the Quakers, 1651. Out of the divisions in the Christian church arose the quakers, a sect who reject the outward ceremonies of religion as useless; equalize all ranks and orders of men; dress with great simplicity; never take oaths before magistrates, considering them as swearing, and disallowed; and use the pronouns thou and thee for you. George Fox, who had been bred a shoemaker and tender of sheep, was the founder of the sect; and in his zeal to spread his doctrines, he visited Holland, Germany, America, and the West Indies, preaching every where. His followers derive their name from the shaking and contortions of body which at first accompanied their religious communings.

The Fifth Monarchy Men. These were a party of turbulent enthusiasts who arose in the time of Cromwell, and affected to expect Christ's sudden appearance upon earth to establish the

fifth universal kingdom of the world, which was to endure a thousand years. Hence their name of Millenarians. Acting under this illusion or pretext, they aimed at the subversion of all human government, and were not put down without bloodshed, 1660 and 1662. The four universal monarchies were the Assyrian or Chaldean, the Persian, the Grecian, and the Roman.

Blood's Conspiracy. This was an attempt to steal the crown and regalia from the Tower by one of Cromwell's officers, colonel Blood, whom Charles II. in his inconsiderate humour, forgave, and kept ever after about his person, granting him an estate of 500*l.* per annum. This, and the king's neglect of many who were his companions in exile, made it said, 'that Charles was a forger of enemies, and a forgetter of friends.'

The Cabal Ministry were Sir Thomas Clifford, who raised himself by intrigue and parliamentary eloquence; lord Ashley, soon after earl of Shaftesbury, one of the most remarkable men of his age, and the prime mover in all political conspiracies; the duke of Buckingham, the handsome, but reprobate leader of fashion; Bennet, earl of Arlington, a man of sound judgment, though of moderate capacity, and the best of the party; and the earl of Lauderdale, afterwards duke, a man of prejudice, ambition, and violent temper, who swayed the king throughout his reign.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Prussia independent of Poland. This was effected, 1656, by its elector, Frederick William of Brandenburg, the founder of the present Prussian monarchy. He cleared his dominions also of the Swedes; and though checked by the French generals, Turenne and the prince of Condé, he at length sat down in peace, respected by all Europe. On the revocation of the edict of Nantes, Frederick received and settled in his dominions 20,000 protestant artisans, who greatly bene-

fited the country by their introduction of manufactures.

Spain under Charles II. Charles V. of Germany had been called Charles I. of Spain. Charles II., son of Philip IV., succeeded that prince 1665; and having no issue by his two marriages, he purposed leaving his crown to Charles, prince of Bavaria, the nephew of his last queen. Louis XIV., however, induced him to change his determination in favour of his own grandson, Philip of Anjou; who ac-

cordingly ascended the throne at his decease in 1700, as Philip V. On that occasion, an English army was sent by queen Anne into Spain to support prince Charles's cause; but its design failed, and a branch of the house of Bourbon thus supplanted the family of Austria, and at this day its descendants possess the Spanish crown.

Portugal under Alonzo VI. The reign of John IV., which terminated 1665, was continually harassed by Spanish invasions; and when his son, Alonzo, a boy of thirteen, and of weakly constitution, succeeded, nothing but the masculine character of his mother prevented a second subjugation of the country. By marrying her daughter Katherine to Charles II. of England, she procured the protection of an English fleet; and in 1665 she terminated the war with Spain by the victory of Montesclaros, which ensured the independence of Portugal. Alonzo, from neglect of education, preferring mean society to court companions, the queen laboured to place his younger brother, Pedro, in his room; but as she died before effecting her object, Pedro entered into cabals against the king, and, in conjunction with the queen herself (princess of Nemours), compelled him to resign all authority into his hands. The states hereupon constituted Pedro regent; and soon after, the marriage of Alonzo and his faithless consort being declared void by the pope, the regent and queen were united in marriage. For fifteen years Pedro acted as regent; and in 1683, on the death of Alonzo, ascended the throne as Pedro II.

Aurungzebe, the great Mongul, reigned in Hindustan from 1658 to 1707; and from his death is dated the rapid decline of the Mongul empire. Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, had revived the grandeur of his house by making conquests in India, when driven out of his paternal dominions about Samarcand; and having overthrown the Gaurian dynasty, he established, 1525, the Tartar Indian em-

pire of the Monguls at Delhi. Hindustan, however, was never a settled and undivided empire; being often under the sway of different adventurers at the same moment, and ever the arena whereon the Tartars and Chinese contended for the dominion of the East.

Denmark an absolute Monarchy, 1660; the people surrendering their rights to king Frederick III., because of the oppression of the nobles.

Count Tekeli's Insurrection. This nobleman's father had aided the malcontents in Hungary against their rulers, the Austrians, but had been defeated; whereon the young count fled to Transylvania, and became prime minister to prince Abaffi. The prince granted him troops, and he joined the Turkish emperor in besieging Vienne, after which he prevailed on the Hungarians to acknowledge him king, 1682, though he had turned Mahometan. A reverse soon followed; the Turks were beaten, and the count being accused of treachery, was carried by them in irons to Adrianople, where with difficulty he proved his innocence. The sultan, on the death of Abaffi, made him prince of Transylvania; but the Austrians so molested him, that he eventually fled to Constantinople, and died there a Roman catholic.

Rise of the Quietists. Molinos, a Spanish priest, having published his 'Spiritual Guide,' 1681, wherein he spoke of the possibility of bringing the soul to a degree of perfection which he called the *unitive life*, had many followers; and Quietism became the appellation of his mystic doctrine. His opinions may be ascertained on reference to the rise of the Hesychasts. One of the chief propagators of Quietism in France was Madame Guyon, a woman of fashion, remarkable for goodness of heart and regularity of life, but fond of attending to the suggestions of a warm and unbridled fancy. When the celebrated Bossuet had declared the opinions of Molinos heretical, 1687, a defence was

set up for them by the amiable prelate Fenelon, who was, however, made to recant by Pope Innocent XII.

Poland under John Sobieski. The early history of Poland is mainly filled with its Russian wars; and until the Cossacks were attached to the state, more by intrigue than conquest, through the influence of king Basori, 1580, it was rarely free from the dangerous assaults of one or other of the northern powers. The Cossacks, however, revolted when Wladislaus VII. attempted to abridge their liberties, 1646, and continually harassed Poland until the reign of Michael, 1670. At that period the Turks also invaded the country with no less than 300,000 men; when John Sobieski, the general of Michael, so completely defeated them, that only 15,000 of that vast multitude made their escape, the rest being either killed or made prisoners. Michael dying before the news of this great victory reached Cracow, the capital, 1674, Sobieski was unanimously proclaimed king; and this heroic prince henceforward kept both Turks and Cossacks in check. The dissensions, however, of the nobles greatly imbibittered the latter part of his reign; and when he died, 1696, it may be truly said that the glory of Poland sank with him, never to rise again.

Eruption of Ætna. This most terrible volcanic eruption on record, occurred 1669. On the evening of Friday, the 8th of March, the sun was observed, contrary to what was usual, to appear pale before its setting, inso-much that it cast a leaden hue upon all objects; and during the succeeding night a terrible earthquake, joined with horrible roarings from Monte Gibello, as Ætna is called by the Sicilians, exceedingly terrified the whole country. But the shaking and noise were so overpowering in the neighbourhood of the mountain, that the people abandoned their houses, and fled into the fields, and ultimately to the city of Catania, fifteen miles distant. The convulsion was followed on the 11th,

at night, by three eruptions, at little distance from each other, the mountain, in a few minutes after, throwing up flames a hundred yards in height; and amid violent bursts, like peals of ordnance or of thunder, stones or rather rocks were hurled through the air, and fell several miles off, while burning cinders and ashes came down like fiery rain upon the lands.

In the mean time there issued a vast torrent of lava, which, dividing into two streams of liquid fire, forced their way down the mountain to Monpileri and Falicchi, and so completely overwhelmed those towns, that not a single house was saved. The burning deluge soon after spread itself to above six miles in breadth, and on the 13th and 14th, destroyed in like manner Campo Rotundo, San Pietro, and Mostorbianco, taking its course towards Catania. On the 14th, an abundance of rain fell; but as it appeared to have no effect upon the lava, the religious appeared every where about the city, carrying in procession their reliques, especially those of St. Agatha, the martyr of Catania; while many mortified themselves with whips and other signs of penance. While the people were thus occupied, the magistrates received intelligence that a number of banditti, taking advantage of the general distraction, had murdered several persons, to obtain possession of their property. Three pair of gallows were instantly erected in different parts of Catania, to deter the miscreants; and in the course of the day, the city of Messina and other large places, sent cart-loads of provisions and clothing, that such distressed persons as might take refuge in Catania, should be provided for.

All the elements seemed, on the 15th, conspiring together to increase the horror of the period. The air was filled with smoke to suffocation, notwithstanding the prevalence of a violent gusty wind; rain fell in torrents; the sea roared in the most fearful manner, and flowed over all its common boundaries; and the fiery stream was

still winding its way, though with great sluggishness, directly upon the city. On the 18th, as the lava was much nearer, the bishop (Cambuchi), followed by the clergy secular and regular, and an infinite number of people, went in solemn procession from Catania, to an altar erected in view of the mountain, and celebrated mass there; and some hope was afforded to the inhabitants when, on the 20th, that branch which seemed most to threaten the city was wholly extinguished, becoming in a few hours hard and rocky, and every where having left pyramids of matter in its course.

The flames from the mountain, however, were still terrific, and the smoke which accompanied them covered the sky: abundance of great stones were still shot forth, and some of these fell at ten miles' distance from the eruption, while ashes strewed the city and country, and produced a stifling sensation upon such as ventured forth from the houses. It was now found that *Ætna* had lost nearly a mile of its former height, and that the place whence the fiery streams were vented, was half a mile in compass: the streams consisted evidently of stones and metals melted, the flame upon them being like that of brimstone; and wherever they passed, they burned the earth, melting at once the walls of houses and castles, and carrying trees and every other obstacle along with them.

From the 20th to the 25th, the explosions were less violent; but on the latter day, stones were ejected with more violence than ever, and for twenty-four hours there was a succession of peals louder than any ordnance, which occasioned much injury to the buildings in Catania, and filled

the air with dust and ashes. On the 28th, the grand current of lava came close to Catania, insomuch that every one but the persons in authority quitted it; but though the walls of the city were greatly damaged, the stream suddenly turned into the sea, and advanced therein nearly 600 yards. The earl of Winchilsea, who wrote an account to King Charles from Catania at the instant, states that it lay upon the sea a mile in breadth, burning in four fathoms water, and two fathoms higher than the sea itself. As it mingled with the ocean, it exploded violently, and threw forth volleys of stones in all directions.

In forty days this eruption destroyed 27,000 houses in different towns and villages; and the lava meeting in its progress a lake of four miles in compass, not only filled it up, but left a positive mountain on the spot. It is remarkable that scarcely any loss of human life occurred throughout the visitation.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

By this proceeding, Louis XIV. took from his protestant subjects, 1685, all those privileges and securities which had been granted by Henry IV. Great cruelties were consequently again exercised by the catholic populace. In Nantes especially, persecution was at its height: branding, forcing to walk on heated iron or broken glass, scalping, tearing the flesh with hot pincers, were resorted to, to cause a recantation of heresy; and awful deaths were suffered by many. The issue was, that Louis lost the greater part of his artists in silk, lace, and other valuable manufactures, who fled to Prussia, England, and other countries, and enriched them by their skill, to the great detriment of France.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Oliver Cromwell. This extraordinary man was the son of a wealthy brewer of Huntingdon, and completed his education at Cambridge. At twenty-one he married the daughter of

Sir James Bouchier; and when his uncle left him soon after an estate of 400*l.* per annum, he turned puritan, and obtained a seat in parliament. Here he violently attacked episcopacy,

and was so reduced in circumstances by supporting the preachers of his sect, that he had actually embarked for America, when ominously stopped by the royal proclamation. When seized with his mortal illness, he assured his physicians he should survive, 'as heaven had revealed as much to him;' but he sank into a lethargy and died, soon after this declaration. The character of Cromwell is best estimated by his actions; and it may justly be said of him, that he was fitted for dominion, had he been entitled to rule. As it was, he undoubtedly exalted the English name, by his vigour and capacity, in the estimation of all Europe. His military talents were of the first order; and the promptitude and decision of his conduct exhibited that energetic self-reliance, which is uniformly one of the primary elements of exalted capability. His private life also was moral and correct: he was a good husband and a kind parent. On the other hand, his great share in the death of Charles, his cruelty on the field of battle, and his hypocritical adoption of such religious tenets as would best secure his usurped power, are stains upon his name which no chance benefit to the nation, resulting from his political sagacity, can wipe out.

General Monk, who for his services in the restoration of Charles, was created duke of Albemarle. Although on the parliament side during the commonwealth, and holding a high command in the army, Cromwell always suspected his fidelity; and in writing to him in the north, the protector used the following expressions: 'There be that tell me there is a certain cunning fellow in Scotland, called George Monk, who is said to lie in wait there, to introduce Charles Stuart: I pray you use your diligence to apprehend him, and bring him up to me!' Monk's wife, the daughter of a blacksmith, was so great a shrew, that the general, who feared not a cannon-ball, trembled at the sound of her voice; a matter which afforded great mer-

ritment to the jovial Charles and his court.

De Witt, the pensionary, or chief minister of Holland, who, from patriotic principles, laboured to abolish the stadtholdership, when he thought the house of Orange would make it the seat of tyranny. He made peace for his states with Cromwell; and was so good a mathematician, that he was intrusted with the navigation of the fleet, when war was declared against England after the restoration. When the mob, in an insurrection, 1672, made the prince of Orange stadtholder, de Witt retired from office, amidst the lamentations of the higher classes; and when the French invaded Holland, so violent were the tumults, that the pensionary and his brother were torn to pieces by the infuriated rabble. His work on Holland is a glorious monument of his abilities as a statesman; displaying the true maxims by which a government may become popular at home and respected abroad, whilst it maintains justice with liberty, and encourages trade without oppression or monopoly.

The Viscount de Turenne, the chief general of Louis XIV., opposed the court at the breaking out of the civil war of the Fronde, but was soon reconciled to the royal party, and displayed his great military skill against the Germans.—*Louis, Prince of Condé*, called the great, defeated the Spaniards at Rocroi, when only twenty-two. He sided with the court in the civil war of the ministry; but when violently opposed by Mazarin, he joined the Spaniards against his country. The peace of the Pyrenees reconciled him to France, 1659, and he then took a leading part in the war with Germany.—*Colbert*, the minister of Louis XIV. after Mazarin, settled the French trade with the East and West Indies on a firm basis; erected the palaces of the Tuileries, Versailles, the Louvre, and Fontainebleau; founded the academies of painting, sculpture, and science; promoted the famous canal by which the Mediterranean and At-

lantic were united ; and admirably reformed the courts of justice.—*Hyde, Earl of Clarendon*, who accompanied Charles I. during the civil wars, of which he wrote the history in Jersey. He was made lord chancellor and prime minister at the Restoration, and by the marriage of his daughter with the duke of York, afterwards James II., became the grandfather of two British queens—Mary II. and Anne. Envied on account of this alliance, charges of treason were brought against the earl by lord Bristol, and he died in exile.—*Wilmot, Earl of Rochester*, a witty, but most licentious peer, son of lord Wilmot, who accompanied Charles in his flight from Worcester, was the life of the court. He however lost the favour of Charles by writing an epigrammatic epitaph upon him :

Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on ;
Who never said a foolish thing,
Nor ever did a wise one.

and died, worn out by excess, at thirty-two, confessing to Dr. Burnet how sinful he had been.—*Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury*, who was chancellor for a short time, and to whom Charles was always much attached, on account of his lively disposition. The king once observed to him, ' Verily, Shaftesbury, thou art the wickedest fellow in my dominions : to which the earl, with his usual readiness, replied, ' Of a subject, please your majesty, I believe I am !'—*Sir William Temple*, the skilful minister of Charles, who formed the triple league, and contrived the marriage of the princess Mary with the prince of Orange. He was a tasteful writer on many subjects ; but his religious opinions were deistical.

Blake, the English admiral. Until Nelson's day, this country could not boast such another ruler of its fleets, and glory of its navy. After completing his education at Wadham college, he entered parliament, taking part with the puritans : but his taste was for the sea, and he soon distin-

guished himself against the Spaniards and Portuguese, and had the full command in the war with the Dutch under the famous Van Tromp. He nearly annihilated the Dutch navy ; and from that period the superiority of the British naval force over the European fleets, has been fully acknowledged. Blake next scoured the Mediterranean, compelling the pope, Spaniards, and French to acknowledge Cromwell ' for England's sake ;' and having released the Christian slaves from the power of the Tunisians, he sailed for the West Indies, and spread along the shores of America the terrors of his name. Cromwell sent him a diamond ring worth 500*l.* for his conquest of the Spanish-plate-fleet, and a day of public thanksgiving was ordered ; but while the people were preparing to hail the return of the commander, he died on board his ship, as it was entering Plymouth. Blake was by no means a lover of republicanism ; and when Charles I. was condemned, he openly offered to put his life in place of that of the king. He constantly told his officers, ' that it was not their business to mind state affairs, but to take care that foreigners did not fool England, let who would be ruler.' Like the founders of Roman freedom, he fought for his country, and not to enrich himself ; and when he died, he had not added 500*l.* to the estate left him by his father.

Cuyp (Albert), son of Jacob Cuyp, Dutchmen, famous for their landscapes and castle-painting. Jacob confined himself to one or two kinds of animal : Albert employed his pencil on oxen, sheep, cows, horses, and goats : he represented them grazing in the green fields, ruminating in the shade, driven afield, or brought home, and in all he attempted excelled.—*Claude of Lorraine*, a pastrycook's boy, travelled to Rome, and became servant to a painter. The lad's genius soon expanded, and on the banks of the Tiber he copied, in solitude, the beauteous scenes of nature which there opened to his view. Nearly self-taught, this extraordinary

man produced those noble pieces which, for their fine distribution of light and shade, the exquisite delicacy of the tints, and the accuracy of finishing, have procured him undying fame.—*Teniers (David)*, father and son, Dutchmen. The subjects of old David's paintings are country-fairs, drinking-parties, merry-makings, &c. The younger David excelled him in the same branch, as respects harmony, union and correctness.—*Paul Potter*, a Dutchman, eminent for landscapes, farms, cattle, &c., and for throwing with just effect the meridian sun upon the various rural objects of his pieces.—*Snyders* of Antwerp, whose hunting pieces, kitchens, fish, &c. have always been greatly admired.—*Berghem* of Haarlem, celebrated for the minuteness of detail in his pictures. The fly in the window, and the spider on the wall, are delineated by him with the same care as his principal figures: so the birdcage, the jug, the basket, &c.—*Murillo*, a Spanish painter, whose landscapes, historic pieces, and flowers, obtained for him a patent of nobility. He had the character of being true to nature, and excellent in his colouring; but was an imitator rather than an inventor.—*Salvator Rosa*, a Neapolitan, whose dissipated youth was passed amongst banditti. He thus imbibed a taste for rough scenery, which he described on canvass with a masterly hand. He was so rapid, as often to begin and complete a picture in a day. His human figures are justly admired; but few of his greater works are known in England.—*Wouvermans*, a Dutchman. His landscapes were highly finished, and diversified with huntings, encampments, &c.; and he always endeavoured to introduce a horse into his pictures.—*Gerard Douw*, of Leyden, whose pieces are all so small as to require the aid of a magnifying-glass to see their beauties. They cost him infinite labour and care.—*Rembrandt*, the Flemish painter, rose to eminence by studying nature alone. His human figures, their attitudes, and expression

of countenance, are all proofs of his high genius.—*Ruysdael*, two brothers, Flemish painters. Solomon is famous for the beauty and accuracy of his representation of marble, &c.; but Jacob ranks among the best landscape-painters of the Dutch school, and in his wood and water has been especially successful.

Milton, the first of English poets, after a liberal education, opened a school in Aldersgate-street, London. He soon afterwards commenced author, and in all his writings displayed a virulent hatred of monarchy, even defending the death of Charles. His labours in support of republicanism gained him the post of Latin secretary to the council of state; but the loss of sight in 1649 induced him at length to turn his active mind to poetical composition. Charles II., with great liberality, offered him again the post of Latin secretary, though he had been marked as a supporter of Cromwell; but Milton, afflicted as he was, preferred seclusion, and in 1665 completed his great work, the 'Paradise Lost.' Elwood, a quaker, who acted as his amanuensis, now persuaded him to write on Paradise found; whereon he produced 'Paradise Regained,' a work regarded not only by the author, but by the then small world of readers, as superior to 'Paradise Lost,' which only brought Milton 15*l.* from the booksellers, and that by instalments. It was left for Addison, in the 'Spectator,' to make England sensible of the treasure she possessed in the 'Paradise Lost;' and Milton not only now shines as the first bard of our isle, but ranks in immortality with the sublime Homer, the splendid Virgil, and the majestic and pathetic Tasso.—*Edmund Waller*, who, as a member of parliament, joined the republicans, and became the favourite, not only of the protector, but afterwards of Charles II., and James II. He has been justly called the parent of English amatory poetry; and the polish, ease, and gaiety of his verses, are not only remarkable for his day, but have never been surpassed

by modern votaries of the muse.—*Abraham Cowley*, who espoused the royal cause, retired at the restoration to enjoy his studies, first at Barn-Elms, and then at Chertsey. His verses, though uncouth and inelegant, are noted for their fire and majesty; and Johnson places him at the head of metaphysical poets.—*Butler*, who had been secretary to Sir Samuel Luke, one of Cromwell's officers, conceived so great a contempt for the round-heads, that he wrote his '*Hudibras*,' to scatter ridicule upon their principles and proceedings, making Sir Samuel the hero of his production. The book delighted Charles II. and his court; but the poet had little beyond praise for his reward, and died in actual poverty. '*Hudibras*,' of which Dr. Grey's edition is the best, notwithstanding its coarse and negligent diction, exhibits the faculty of wit (which has been defined the power of rapid illustration by remote contingent resemblances) more essentially and accurately than any other book in existence.—*Corneille*, the first dramatic poet of France, was first known by his '*Melité*;' but his tragedy of '*Medea*,' 1636, at once marked him as a man of extraordinary genius. Although his '*Cid*,' '*Cinna*,' '*Horatii*,' a comedy called '*The Liar*,' and other succeeding productions, fully established his fame, it appears that he died in poverty. Corneille's powers were especially displayed in the delineation of Roman characters.—*Sir John Denham*, whose '*Cooper's Hill*' is his best poem, and whose power of depicting local scenery and incidents has scarcely been surpassed by any modern descriptive poet.—*Otway*, who left the army, to write for his bread. That bread was literally his death: for, being hunted by bailiffs, he was choked in eating too hastily a roll, which some charitable hand had furnished to his crying necessity. No poet has been more successful than Otway in reaching the heart; and as nature was his guide, his productions—of which his tragedies of '*The Orphan*' and '*Venice Preserved*'

are fine specimens—will ever rank amongst the most admired efforts of genius.—*Molière*, the restorer of French comedy. His '*Malade Imaginaire*' was his last and most applauded work; and he died just after having supported the chief character in it on the fourth night of its representation. His home being rendered uncomfortable to him by a scolding wife, he became celebrated for describing with accuracy the broils of domestic life.—*Racine*, the French tragic writer, took Euripides and Sophocles for his models, and has admirably imitated them in the purity of his language, and in his truth to nature. Corneille excelled in supporting the lofty pretensions of his characters; while Racine painted, like the ancients, all the workings of the passions, with the nice skill of the moral philosopher and metaphysician. His '*Andromaque*,' '*Phœdra*,' and '*Athalie*,' will ever remain monuments of his fame. So sensitive was the poet's disposition that, when informed he had offended the king by his '*Memorial on the Miseries of the Poor*,' he took to his bed and died.—*Herrick*, a clergyman who followed the fortunes of the first Charles, and was reinstated in his benefice at the restoration. His poetry, so remarkable for freedom and sweetness, was little noticed until the present century; but his sonnets have now taken their place, and that an exalted one, amongst the lyric productions of our island.

Penn, a quaker, who was expelled from Christ-church, Oxford, for his opinions. His father also turned him out of doors, because he would not take off his hat in his presence: at his death, however, he left him a property of 1500*l.* a-year. Charles II. having made him a grant of the lands in North America, called the New Netherlands, on account of a debt of the crown to his father, he invited such quakers as were inclined to emigrate, to settle on his estate, which he called Pennsylvania, and built a town, which he called Philadelphia.

Puffendorf, of Saxony, the excellent civilian, when tutor to the Swedish ambassador's son at Copenhagen, was seized by the Danes on a war suddenly breaking out; and in prison he planned in Latin his admirable 'Treatise on the Law of Nature and of Nations.'

Pascal, a French divine, whose father, anxious to tie him to classical studies, forbade his taking up physics; but in spite of all opposition, he devoured Euclid, and at sixteen wrote a work on Conic Sections. To him science is indebted for the experimental establishment of the great law of hydrostatics, that liquids press in proportion to their perpendicular depth; and 'in a word,' says Professor Powell, 'he may be said to have furnished us with nearly all the material advances made upon those fundamental principles of hydrostatics, originally demonstrated by Archimedes, and subsequently by Galileo and Stevin.' Pascal was astonishing the philosophical world by the ease with which he solved the most abstruse questions, when he suddenly became melancholy, threw away his books of science, and entered the church. Though a Jesuit in self-denial (wearing an iron girdle, having sharp points, next his skin), he opposed their order, and supported the Jansenists against them. Voltaire, who hated all who had religion enough to contend about it, was delighted, in after times, to praise Pascal's 'Provincial Letters,' which abound with witticisms against the disciples of Loyola.

Maurice Hoffman, a Prussian physician, who, in dissecting a turkey, discovered the pancreatic duct; from which his friend Versungus ascertained the same vessel in the human body.

John Bunyan, the son of a tinker, after a youth of debauchery, served in the parliament-army; till a voice from heaven, he asserted, called him to repent. He then preached as a baptist, and was for that offence imprisoned twelve years, during which he wrote the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' yet a most popular work, which, under an allegorical

form, recommends the sublimest truths and the purest virtues. That John possessed wit and a cheerful disposition is apparent from the story told of a quaker visiting him when in prison, with the hope of changing his religious tenets, stating 'that the Lord had sent him to convert him.' 'If,' said Bunyan, 'the Lord really had sent thee, and thou sayest thou hast been so many years in finding me out, thou wouldest have been better informed; for the Lord knows I have been here a poor prisoner in Bedford gaol these twelve years past.'

Sir Matthew Hale, a judge under Cromwell and lord chief justice under Charles II., was celebrated for his high religious and moral character; though, in his judicial capacity, he was unfortunately the last who from the bench condemned to death for the imaginary crime of witchcraft. His most popular book, and a very admirable one, is 'Contemplations, moral and divine.'

Owen Felltham, secretary to the countess of Thomond during the Commonwealth, wrote 'Resolves, divine, moral, and political,' an excellent Christian book, once very popular, and which was recently produced in a thirteenth edition by Mr. Cumming of the India Board.

Dugdale, the antiquary, who, as one of the officers of the Herald's college, enriched literature by his accounts of the dissolved monasteries, and English cathedrals. His great work is 'Monasticon Anglicanum.' He was a steady loyalist, and accompanied Charles I. in the civil war.

James Bernoulli, of Basil, a mathematician, celebrated for his discovery of the properties of the curve.

Wilkins, made bishop of Chester by Charles II., who clearly pointed out that steam would become the great mechanical power. He was warden of Wadham, Oxford, during the commonwealth; and, by his interest with the puritans, prevented the pillage of the university.

Isaac Barrow, a divine and excel-

lent mathematician, who was made master of Trinity college, Cambridge, by Charles II., as being the best scholar in all England. At the Charter-house, when a boy, he was only noted for his love of fighting; and his father was heard to say he hoped, if it pleased God to take any one of his children, it would be Isaac. Charles used to call him an unfair preacher, because he so exhausted his subject, as to leave little for others to say upon it. He greatly advanced the science of geometry; and his sublime and eloquent discourses, though somewhat too long, must ever be accounted a treasury of admirable arguments and thoughts, by the student in divinity.

Jeremy Taylor, after being chaplain to Charles I., was promoted at the restoration to the see of Down and Connor, in Ireland. This earnest and excellent divine, who, on account of his very comely person, was designated the beauty of holiness, pleaded eloquently in his 'Liberty of Prophecy' for liberty of conscience; and he has left us an invaluable treasure in his 'Golden Grove,' and 'Holy Living and Dying,' admirable as those works are for their fervour of devotional feelings, eloquence, beauty of imagery, and (for his day) unusual elegance of diction. The bishop's work on the liberty of prophesying, or as we should understand the word, preaching, has raised him many enemies: his horror of persecution for religion's sake even inducing him to inveigh against the damnatory clause of the Athanasian creed. He died 1667, aged fifty-four.

Lucretia Cornaro, a learned lady of Venice, who took her degrees at Padua, even to D.D., and was more sought by travellers in Italy than the antiquities and natural beauties of the country. Her application brought her to the grave at the early age of thirty-seven. She was the descendant of Louis Cornaro.

Sydenham, the father of modern physic in England, being the first to follow experience in preference to

theory, practised in London with great credit from 1660 to 1670; during which his valuable observations on the plague, and epidemics generally, were made.

Dr. Richard Busby, head of Westminster-school for fifty-five years, was educated in that seminary, and at Christ-church, Oxford, and had the satisfaction of bringing forward many distinguished ornaments of the country. So strict a disciplinarian was he, that when king Charles II. visited the school, he begged permission to wear his hat in his presence, lest his pupils should think there was a more important personage in the kingdom than himself; a request with which the good-tempered monarch, with much merriment, complied. Busby was very small in person, but possessed a dignity of manner which, combined as it was with high intellectual endowments, rendered him terrible to the rebellious portion of his scholars. In allusion to this, it is said that, in a coffee-house one day, an Irish baronet, of immense stature, accosted him with the ironical impertinence, 'Will you permit me to pass to my seat, O giant?' when the doctor politely making way, replied, 'Certainly, O pigmy!' 'Oh, sir,' said the baronet, 'my expression referred to the size of your intellect.' 'And mine,' retorted the doctor, 'to the size of your own.'

Valentine Greatracks, an Irish gentleman of good family, who had the singular gift of healing many disorders of the human frame by his touch. At the restoration, he was made clerk of the peace for the county of Cork, and a magistrate; which functions he discharged with integrity and a good name. In a narrative of his own he states, 'About four years since, I had an impulse which frequently suggested to me, that there was bestowed on me the gift of curing the king's evil, which, for the extraordinariness thereof, I thought fit to conceal for some time; but at length I told my wife; but her reply was, that it was an idle imagination. But to

prove the contrary, one William Maher, of the parish of Lismore, brought his son to my wife, who used to distribute medicines in charity to the neighbours; and she came and told me, that I had now an opportunity of trying my impulse, for there was one at hand that had the evil grievously in the eyes, throat, and cheeks; whereupon I laid my hands upon the places afflicted, and prayed to God, for Jesus' sake, to heal him. In a few days afterwards, the father brought his son so changed, that the eye was almost quite whole; and to be brief, (to God's glory I speak it) within a month he was perfectly healed, and so continues.' He subsequently cured another patient, to the utter astonishment of the physician of the neighbourhood, who said, if he healed that person, he would not question but he might cure all manner of diseases. When the intelligence of so extraordinary a gift had spread about, an immense number of people, not only from the adjoining parts of Ireland, but from England, resorted to him; insomuch that his stables, barns, and other outhouses, were filled with the sick of all sorts of diseases. In the mean time the clergy of the diocese of Waterford took up the matter seriously, and the dean of Lismore cited Greatracks to the bishop's court; where appearing, on being asked where was his licence for curing, he replied 'that though he had no such licence, he knew no law which prohibited any person from doing what good he could to his neighbour.' He was nevertheless prohibited from laying hand on any for the future. Greatracks, however, proceeded in his career, until his fame reached the higher orders in England; and he was entreated to come over and cure the viscountess Conway of an obstinate headach. Greatracks fairly acknowledges that he did not succeed in relieving the noble patient, for whose sake he came; but, honoured and munificently treated by lord Conway, he cured many in the neighbourhood of Ragley, and thence was sum-

moned to London by Charles, who recommended him to the notice of the court. In London he was visited by the excellent Boyle, who was an eye-witness of many of his cures; and though Dr. Lloyd, chaplain of the Charter-house, the lively St. Evremond, who happened then to be in England, and many wits of the time, endeavoured to write him down, Greatracks was enabled, by the testimonials of both physicians and divines, to rise superior to his detractors; especially when a Mr. Love, who had at first ridiculed him, stepped forward to assure the world, that he was witness to his cure of a person who had suffered with epileptic fits, which no medical skill had been able to stem. Mr. Thoresby, of the Royal Society, after witnessing his power in eradicating some serious affections of members of his own family, detailed the particulars in the philosophical transactions of that society; and, after a close investigation, that learned body decided that Mr. Greatracks was possessed of a sanative contagion in his body, which had an antipathy to some particular diseases, and not to others. Bishop Rust, Cudworth, author of the 'Intellectual System,' Dr. Whichcot, Dr. Wilkins, Dr. Simon Patrick, and others, whose word cannot be disputed, bore testimony, by their writing, to the extraordinary cures he effected; and an extract from lord Conway's letter (the husband of the lady in whose case he failed) to his brother, Sir George Rawdon, dated Ragley, February 9th, 1665, will show at once that Greatracks could not have been a willing impostor. 'Mr. Greatracks hath been here a fortnight to-morrow, and my wife is not the better for him; but very few others have failed under his hands, of many hundreds that he hath touched in these parts. This morning, the bishop of Gloucester recommended to me a prebendary's son in his diocese, to be brought to him for a leprosy from head to foot, which hath been judged incurable above ten years, and in my chamber

he cured him perfectly; that is, from a moist humour, 'twas immediately dried up, and began to fall off: the itching was quite gone, and the heat of it taken away. The youth was transported to admiration. The bishop saw this as well as myself, but it is not the hundredth part; and after all, I am far from thinking that his cures are at all miraculous. His efficiency extends not to *all* diseases, and he doth also dispatch some with a great deal of ease, and others not without a great deal of pain.' The labour here alluded to may be explained by Mr. Thoresby, who, in describing his own brother's cure of a painful affection of the head and back, says, 'Mr. Greatracks gave present ease to his head, by only stroking it with his hand. He then fell to rub his back, which he most complained of; but the pain immediately fled to his right thigh; then

he pursued it with his hand to his knee, from thence to his leg, ankle, and foot, and at last to his great toe. As it fell lower, it grew more violent, and when in his toe, it made him roar out; but upon rubbing it there, it vanished.' The death of Greatracks occurred 1682, in his fifty-fifth year.

Isaak Walton, the father of British anglers, kept a milliner's shop in Fleet-street, married the excellent bishop Kenn's sister, and although by no means an educated man, published books that will be valued as long as our language is read. These are his 'Complete Angler,' and brief lives of bishop Sanderson, Hooker, Wotton, George Herbert, and Donne. The charm of Walton's writings depends on the air of verisimilitude, and unaffected benevolence and piety, which they every where exhibit. He died 1683, aged ninety.

INVENTIONS, &c.

The Cape of Good Hope colonized first 1652, by the Dutch; who reduced the native Hottentots, and extended the territory nearly to its present limit. In 1795 the fortune of war transferred it to the British; and though restored to the Dutch in the short peace of 1801, it was again taken by the English 1806, and has ever since remained their own. The colony extends 230 miles from north to south, and 550 from east to west: its contents are 120,000 square miles, with one inhabitant per square mile. The place is admirably situated both for the English, and the British residents in India: the one make it their great watering-place for ships, and the other their resort for the recovery of health, the climate being temperate, though storms are frequent. Wine of an inferior kind is made in vast quantities; but wheat, it is imagined, will soon become its staple commodity.

The Air-pump invented, by Otto Von Guericke. This philosophical instrument for removing the air out of any vessel, has been of the highest service to chemistry. The *presence of*

air in various substances is detected by it. A glass of any liquid placed under what is called the receiver of the pump, will give out bubbles of air as soon as the exhaustion (as the abstraction of air is called) begins. A shrivelled apple will be restored to apparent freshness, by the expanding, in this way, of the air which it contains. The *pressure* of air is shown, if, when the receiver is open at both ends, the upper orifice be stopped by the hand; as in that case, when exhaustion begins, the pressure of the exterior air will prevent the removal of the hand. The *weight* of the air is proved by exhausting a copper ball, properly constructed, of its air; after which it will weigh less than before. The *elasticity* of air may be shown by placing a bladder, shrivelled up, and tied at the mouth, under the receiver: as exhaustion takes place, it will expand gradually until it bursts.

Jamaica became an English possession 1655, by the bravery of admirals Penn and Venables. The Spaniards were its former owners. The sugar-cane was introduced soon after from

Barbadoes; and sugar is now the staple commodity of the island. The place also produces excellent cocoa, coffee, cotton, ginger, indigo, pimento, and mahogany. It has remained ever since in the hands of the British.

Flamstead House (so called after the first astronomer-royal), in Greenwich-park, was erected for an observatory, to be occupied by the astronomer-royal. The longitudinal distances in England are calculated from the meridian of Greenwich; and in 1833 the admiralty issued directions for a ball to be henceforward dropped every day from the top of a pole on the Observatory, at one o'clock P.M. solar time, that the vessels in the river, and the people of the docks, may regulate and rate their chronometers.

The Habeas Corpus Act was passed 1679. This bulwark of British liberty enacts, that if any person be imprisoned by order of any court, or of the queen herself, he may have a writ of *habeas corpus* delivered to his detainer, commanding him to bring him before the judges of the Queen's Bench or Common Pleas, to ascertain the cause of the committal, and its justice. The prisoner must be brought up within twenty days at furthest; so that no Venetian secrecy, in the case of incarcerated persons, can occur in England. The title of the act originates in the commencing words of the order, which according to its various forms, begins, 'Habeas Corpus, ad faciendum, subjiciendum, recipiendum,' &c. In times of great political excitement, the operation of this act is usually suspended; but this suspension only prevents persons committed from being bailed, tried, or discharged, during the suspension, leaving to the committing magistrate all the responsibility attending on illegal imprisonment.

Bands first used by the clergy, 1652; by lawyers in 1715, Judge Finch using them first.—*Franking* first allowed to members of parliament.—*The Royal Society*, for the encouragement of natural philosophy, was incorporated by Charles II., 1662. Every

thing connected with physical science is professed to be investigated by this society, new discoveries registered, errors corrected, and new experiments encouraged.—*The Lacteals*, in anatomy, discovered by Asellius, in dissecting a dog.—*The Magic Lantern* invented by Kircher.—*Tea first imported into England* from Holland, and used as a medicine or cordial, 1666.—*The Royal Exchange*, London, built. That of Sir Thomas Gresham had been destroyed by the great fire; and the edifice now constructed, continued to be the daily resort of merchants for the settlement of their commercial affairs until 1838, when it was burned to the ground, together with Lloyd's Insurance-office for British shipping.—*Insurance Offices* first set up in London, to prevent losses by fire.—*The Hudson's Bay Company*, for the importation of the skins and furs of North America, was incorporated, 1670.—*The Penny Post* (the origin of the twopenny and threepenny) first set up in London by Murray, an upholsterer, to carry letters short distances.—*The Figure of Britannia* was first used on the copper coins in this reign. Charles is said to have ordered it to commemorate the fine person of his cousin, Louisa de Querouaille, whom he created duchess of Portsmouth.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1649, Mahomet IV. *Popes*. 1644, Innocent X.; 1655, Alexander VII.; 1667, Clement IX.; 1670, Clement X.; 1676, Innocent XI. *France*. 1643, Louis XIV. *Russia*. 1645, Alexis; 1674, Theodore; 1677, Fædor; 1682, Iwan V. and Peter I. *Sweden*. 1633, Christina; 1654, Charles X.; 1660, Charles XI. *Denmark and Norway*. 1648, Frederick III.; 1670, Christiern V. *Portugal*. 1640, John IV.; 1656, Alphonso VI.; 1667, Pedro regent; 1683, Pedro II. *Spain*. 1621, Philip IV.; 1665, Charles II. *Germany*. 1637, Ferdinand III.; 1658, Leopold I. *Poland*. 1674, John Sobieski.

SECTION IV.

JAMES II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1685 to 1689—4 YEARS.

Personal History. James II., the brother of Charles II., was born at St. James's palace, 1633. After the taking of Oxford in 1646, he escaped in female attire to Holland, where his sister, the princess of Orange, protected him. When twenty he entered the French army, and served under Turenne; and soon after, he joined the Spaniards under Condé. At the restoration he changed services, and became high admiral; in which capacity he beat the Dutch under Opdam, who was blown up with his ship. James, now duke of York, behaved in this action with great bravery; but he was less successful in combating the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, 1672; though he came off with honour, and the enemy retired from the fight. The duchess of York (Clarendon's daughter) dying a Roman catholic, and James openly confessing himself to be of that faith, popular hatred soon assailed him, and he was obliged for a while to retire to Brussels; but he was afterwards intrusted with many important affairs, and especially with the punishment of the Scottish Covenanters, whom he treated with great rigour. Even his brother checked him on that occasion with the observation, 'James, I am now too old to care to go on travel again; but you may go if you please.'

By his first wife, Anne Hyde, James had eight children, the two eldest of whom were *Mary* and *Anne*, afterwards queens of England; and by his second, Mary d'Este, daughter of the duke of Modena, he had six children, the eldest of whom, James Francis Edward, was afterwards known as the Pretender, being excluded from the succession on account of his religion. James was in person and stature like his brother Charles, but with a more serious aspect. He was brave, steady, resolute, diligent, and upright; and though determinately attached to popery, remitted the imprisonment of Baxter, one of its steady opponents. He was always a dutiful subject; and though fond of arbitrary power, was eminently fitted to rule. As a parent he was affectionate and indulgent; and it has fallen to the lot of few fathers to be deserted by their children in the hour of adversity, as he was. After his defeat at the Boyne, he retired to the convent of La Trappe at St. Germain's, and lived in every respect as one of the monks, only partaking occasionally of solid food, seldom touching wine, and submitting to the strictest rules of the order in early rising, manual labour, &c. He was assisted by Louis XIV. with a pension; and dying in the monastery, 1701, aged sixty-eight, was buried in the Benedictine church in Paris.

Political History. The character of James, while duke of York, was so well known to the people, that they were not surprised to find him go openly to mass, and surround himself with catholic peers on his accession. They even saw him attempt absolute power, by levying the customs and excise without a parliament; yet all this they regarded little, so long as the nation was permitted to enjoy those religious and civil privileges, which had been forced from the crown in the two preceding reigns. When, however, James sent an agent to Rome, intimating that England would return to the bosom of the church, disturbances commenced; and the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the late king, attempting to seize the crown, paid for his rebellion with his life. Roman catholics were now every where advanced to power, and James evinced

his determinate purpose to restore popery, by citing to an ecclesiastical court such of the English clergy as had been distinguished for their enmity to its professors.

A declaration of indulgence in matters of religion having been issued by royal command, and ordered to be read in every church, seven bishops petitioned against the ordinance, and were committed to the Tower: but being brought to trial, they were acquitted, not only to the general joy of the protestants, but to the evident satisfaction of the army. All confidence was now nearly destroyed between James and his subjects; and a plan was concerted, by a mixed party of whigs and tories, to bring over William, prince of Orange, who had married the king's eldest daughter, in order that he might settle the quarrel, if possible. In November, 1688, therefore, that prince arrived with a fleet in Torbay, and landed with many troops. Recollection of the severe punishments which had visited them for Monmouth's rebellion, deterred the people of the west from joining readily in what they supposed a fresh attack on the throne; but as the prince's visit was affirmed to be merely a mediatory one, many men of rank went over to the Orange side, and the army began to desert by entire regiments. Even the king's favourite, Churchill, joined the prince; and James, who had proceeded as far as Salisbury to attack his enemy, found it advisable to return. From this time, he daily saw himself abandoned by those whom he had most trusted; and when informed that his daughter Anne, married to the prince of Denmark, had put herself into the hands of the Orangeists, the unhappy father, in agony of heart, exclaimed, 'God help me, my own children have forsaken me!'

Incapable of any vigorous resolution, and finding all his overtures of accommodation disregarded, James resolved to quit the country; and first sending off the queen and her infant prince to France, himself took ship in the *Thames*. The vessel putting in at Feversham, in Kent, the people insulted and detained him: he was however protected by the gentry, who advised his return to London, and accordingly escorted him thither. Strange to say, he was received with acclamations on re-entering his capital, and honourably lodged, as before, at Whitehall; but when William, fearful that he might be induced to re-assume the reins of government, had used every means but force to drive him from the kingdom, James, overpowered by the defection of his two daughters, his nephew, and his son-in-law, asked leave to retire to Rochester, and embarking for Picardy, was received at St. Germain's with great kindness by Louis XIV. This act of the king is usually called the Abdication; and the parliament and nation supplied the vacancy in the throne, by placing thereon, as joint rulers, the prince of Orange and his wife Mary.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Duke of Monmouth's Rebellion, 1685. Notwithstanding the ill success of this prince's former attempt upon the throne, he resolved on trusting to the support of the populace, with whom he had always been a great favourite. The earl of Argyre, supporting his cause in Scotland, put himself at the head of 2500 men; but a body of James's forces coming against him, his army fell away, and he himself was taken prisoner by a peasant, who found him hiding in a pool of water, which

came up to his neck. He was publicly executed at Edinburgh. Meanwhile Monmouth, whose army had increased to 6000 men, though he had scarcely a hundred on landing in Dorset, went through the ceremony of regal inauguration at Taunton; and hearing of the advance of the royalist forces upon Bridgewater, he ventured to give them battle at Sedgemoor. He was, however, defeated with the loss of 2000 men; fled from the field above twenty miles, till his horse sank under

him; and was ultimately found lying at the bottom of a ditch, covered with fern. He burst into tears when captured by his enemies, and soon after wrote a submissive letter to James, entreating him to spare his brother's son. James saw him, but was inexorable to his prayers; and Monmouth, resuming his noble demeanour, prepared for death. This favourite of the people was attended to the scaffold on Tower-hill with great lamentations. He warned the executioner not to fall into the error he had committed in beheading Russel, where it had been necessary to repeat the blow; a precaution which served only to dismay the officer, who, striking again and again to no purpose, was about to evade the performance of his duty, when the sheriff forced him to proceed. The earl of Feversham, and especially one colonel Kirke, behaved with great severity to the followers of Monmouth, hanging them without trial; and judge Jeffreys caused to be executed, by constantly intimidating the juries, no less than 251 in Dorchester, Exeter, Taunton, and Wells.

Trial of the Seven Bishops, 1688. These were Sancroft of Canterbury, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Turner of Ely, Kenn of Bath and Wells, Lake of Chichester, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Bristol. Since Monmouth's rebellion, James had every summer encamped his army on Hounslow-heath, that he might overawe his mutinous people; and on the day of the acquittal of the bishops, he had retired, after reviewing the troops, into the tent of lord Feversham, the general.

Here, on a sudden, he was surprised to hear a great uproar in the camp, attended with the most extravagant symptoms of joy. On inquiring the cause, the general told him it was nothing but the rejoicing of the soldiers for the acquittal of the bishops.' 'Call you that nothing?' said the king, 'but so much the worse for them.'

Landing of the Prince of Orange, 1688. William's plea for invading England was, 'that he might redress the grievances of the people, and give them a legal and free parliament, which might provide for the liberty and safety of the nation.' In three days after this declaration, he hired 400 transports; and with a fleet of 500 vessels, and a force of 14,000 men, he sailed from Helvoetsluys for the English coast. The people in the main knew nothing of the project, and the Dutch got to Exeter without any addition to their ranks; when Lord Colchester, with a few of his soldiers, joined them. Lord Lovelace, when about to do the same, was seized by the militia; but when the king's general, Feversham, was told by many officers that they could not fight *against* the prince of Orange, although they would not fight on his side, desertion became general. Lord Churchill, who had been raised from a page to a high command by James's free bounty, now deserted his unhappy master, and encouraged prince George of Denmark to do the like. Prince George's wife, James's own daughter, thereupon fled from London, and caused that agonized exclamation of the monarch, 'My own children have forsaken me!'

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Hungary was annexed to Germany, 1687, and has ever since continued a portion of that empire. It has been shown how this state gradually rose to eminence amongst European nations. Like most other countries, it was at first divided into petty principalities, which were at length united under one duke; a title which was changed to king in 1000. The throne was then

filled by election; and for 200 years the Turks and Germans disputed their right to the casting vote. Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, however, being raised to the throne, 1527, his family, by a certain line of policy, managed to keep the throne till 1687; when, by a formal act, it was declared hereditary in their house.

The City of Smyrna was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, 1688. The rock opening where the castle (an immense pile of building) stood, swallowed it up; and no less than 5000 persons perished.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Dr. Kenn, who in every station exhibited a conscientious propriety of conduct, and unyielding morality. When chaplain to king Charles, and residing at Winchester, he was desired by the royal messenger to get his house ready to receive Mrs. Nell Gwynne, as his majesty was coming to the city; but Dr. Kenn, thinking the king's mistress an unsuitable inmate, positively refused to admit her. When Charles was informed of his conduct, he coolly replied, 'Then Mrs. Gwynne must find lodgings elsewhere;' and to the surprise of his courtiers, he took the first opportunity to promote this conscientious supporter of the dignity of his character to the see of Bath and Wells. His firmness of principle was again exemplified in his petition to James II., for which, with the other bishops, he was sent to the Tower; and it was still further displayed at the Revolution, when he refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and was in consequence deprived of his bishopric. Retiring from public life, he devoted the rest of his days to literary and pious pursuits; and was so much respected by queen Anne, that she granted him a pension of 200*l.* per annum. Wishing always to be duly impressed with a sense of his mortality, he used to carry his shroud in his portmanteau when he travelled, and to place it among his ordinary linen when at home.

Robert Boyle, the illustrious philosopher, was son of the earl of Cork; and having delicate health, he devoted his hours to the study of the physical sciences. Charles offered to make him both a bishop and a peer (for he was the fourteenth child of his father, and had no chance of the family title); but he declined every office which could tend to draw him from his pursuits. Boerhaave says that 'to Boyle we owe the secrets of fire, air, water, animals,

vegetables, fossils; so that from his works may be deduced the whole system of natural knowledge.' His zeal in the propagation of Christianity was shown by his sending 500 copies of the gospels in the Malayan tongue to the Indies, and a vast number of Grotius's treatise on the Christian religion, translated into Arabic, to the Levant. To private charities he devoted 1000*l.* yearly. For forty years of his life his spirits were so depressed, that it seems surprising how he could find resolution to write, and to make the difficult experiments he performed. This is one of the mysteries of hypochondriasis. He died a bachelor, aged sixty-four, 1691, after founding a lecture at St. Paul's, in defence of the gospel against unbelievers. Boyle's attention was directed to a vast range of physical subjects; but he is most celebrated for his improvement of the air-pump.

George Villiers, the witty duke of Buckingham, son of the duke who was assassinated, was a talented, but headstrong and sensual man; and though possessed of an estate of 30,000*l.* a year, he continually risked its confiscation, by his violent conduct towards the government and even the house of lords. Dryden has accurately delineated his character in *Zimri* in his *Absalom* and *Achitophel*. Buckingham is deservedly praised as a poet; and his 'Rehearsal,' in which he satirizes the dramatic writers of the age, still ranks amongst our most favoured comedies.

Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, so made by William, on the suspension of Sancroft for his refusal to take the oath of allegiance. As he had been attached to the Stuarts, his elevation gave great offence to the nonconformists; and after his death, were found amongst his papers some bundles of pamphlets, full of invective against him, whereon he had written,

'These are libels: I pray God forgive them! I do!'—The cares attendant upon his responsible situation were deeply felt by him; and in his commonplace-book he inserted some forcible observation to remind the reader, that what appears to a distant spectator real grandeur, is too often experienced by the possessor to be a source of misery, if not an intolerable burden. He left nothing to his widow but the copy of his sermons, which sold for 2500 guineas; to which the king added an annuity of 600*l*. So admired have these discourses been, that they have been translated into all the continental languages: they display throughout sound reasoning, great originality, and solid piety, in a clear, elegant, and unaffected style. He died aged sixty-four, 1694.

Baxter, who, after receiving episcopal ordination, became an independent, though he remonstrated with Cromwell on the illegality of his power. Charles II. made him one of his chaplains, and Clarendon offered him the see of Hereford, which he refused, alleging his wish to remain minister of Kidderminster. In 1672 he was forbidden to officiate at a meeting-house which he had built in London; and in 1682 was fined 195*l*. for preaching five sermons within five miles of a corporation. Judge Jeffreys after this condemned him, with much asperity and injustice, to an imprisonment of two years, for his paraphrase on the New Testament, on the ground that he had therein seditiously opposed episcopacy; but in six months king James liberated him. Some of his works, particularly his 'Saints'

Everlasting Rest,' written in a forcible style, have been deservedly popular, and are still much cherished by various classes of dissenters. During all his troubles, in and out of prison, Baxter had that greatest of earthly blessings, an affectionate and consoling wife; but for whose unshrinking firmness and constant solicitude he declared he should have died. As head of a sect, Baxter took a stand betwixt the Calvinists and Arminians. He maintained, and had many followers in his doctrine, that the Saviour died for some in particular, though for all generally; and thus endeavoured to unite the principles of an unconditional election and a provisional salvation. A body of Baxterians long acknowledged these distinctive opinions; and the nonconformists, after the revolution, were clearly divided into Calvinists, Baxterians, and Arminians. He died 1691, aged seventy-six.

Ashmole, the antiquary, who followed the fortunes of Charles II. till the battle of Worcester, and was made Windsor Herald at the restoration. His large collection of curiosities he left to the university of Oxford, where a museum, erected for the purpose, still exhibits them. He died 1692, aged seventy-five.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*, 1649, Mahomet IV.; 1687, Solymán III. *Pope*. 1676, Innocent XI. *France*. 1643, Louis XIV. *Russia*, 1682, Iwan V. and Peter I. *Sweden*. 1660, Charles XI. *Denmark and Norway*. 1670, Christiern V. *Portugal*. 1683, Pedro II. *Spain*. 1665, Charles II. *Germany*. 1658, Leopold I. *Poland*. 1674, John Sobieski; 1696, Frederick Augustus I.

SECTION V.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II., KING AND QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1689 TO 1702—13 YEARS.

Personal History. William, prince of Orange, was born at the Hague 1650, and was twenty-two when elected stadtholder of the Dutch. He was of the

middle stature, of a thin body, and delicate constitution, subject to an asthma and cough from his infancy. He was sparing of speech, and his manner was repulsive. In battle he displayed coolness, fortitude, and an animation very unusual for his general demeanour. His ambition promoted him to act as umpire in the contests of Europe, and to meddle in the quarrels of other states. To sum up his character in few words—‘William was a fatalist in religion, indefatigable in war, enterprising in politics, dead to the warm and generous emotions of the heart, a cold relation, an ungracious prince, and an imperious sovereign.’ Mary, daughter of the king he had dethroned, and whom he had married in 1667, was in person tall and well-proportioned, with a pleasing expression of countenance, and a dignified air. Her judgment was solid, and her apprehension clear: but she possessed a cool equanimity, which agreed with her known want of natural affection. She made William an obedient wife, and even acted well as a regent, during his occasional visits to the continent: but to her sister Anne she behaved with the coldness she had shown towards her father, insomuch that a degree of dislike existed between the two. At the age of thirty-three, she was seized with the smallpox, and died 1694, leaving her husband to rule alone, and without any issue.

Political History. The abdication had taken place in 1688; and it was not till 1689 that the parliament assented to William’s accession, in right of his wife. Thus become the sovereign of a powerful kingdom, he soon found, from the prevalence of party spirit, that the utmost vigilance would be required to enable him to sit steadily upon the throne. Although the tories had united with the whigs in allowing his interference in the national affairs, they were opposed to his advancement to the throne, to the prejudice of both James and his infant son. As high-church-men too they could not give up their notion of indefeasible hereditary right, nor acquiesce in the transfer of a throne by the mere will of the multitude. In Scotland, the whigs alone favoured the exaltation of William; and in Ireland, the majority, being catholics, adhered to James.

While William was considering the difficulties of his situation, the exiled king, aided by Louis XIV., made a descent upon Ireland 1689; and being received there with open arms, proceeded to invest the towns in the interest of William. Failing in the siege of Londonderry, after a great loss of men, he returned to Dublin, and held a parliament; but nothing was projected on this occasion, and William soon after landing, the decisive battle of the Boyne was fought in June 1690. The action was of short duration; as the Irish, after losing 1500 men, fled in all directions. James, on his return to Dublin, resigned his power, and re-embarked for France; where, as all succeeding endeavours to restore him proved fruitless, he passed the remainder of his life in cloistered seclusion. Although Limerick held out against William, he returned to England; and had the satisfaction, in the succeeding year, of seeing Ireland free from the Jacobites, as the followers of James began to be called.

In the mean time Louis XIV. was pushing his conquests in the Netherlands; and William hurried to a congress at the Hague, 1691, to animate the confederate princes against that monarch. The French, however, were so far beforehand with the allies, that they took the strong city of Mons this year, and Namur in the year following; and William’s spirited attempt to surprise Marshal Luxembourg at Steenkirk having failed, his military reputation gained nothing. Again in 1693, at the battle of Landen, the French were victorious; but hostilities being put an end to by the treaty of Ryswick, 1696, all that William obtained from his campaigns, was a promise on the part of France to attempt to dethrone him no more, and the conviction that he had, by his loans to carry on war, laid the foundation of England’s national debt.

The death of queen Mary without issue, now revived the hopes of the Jacobites; and in 1696 a plot was discovered to assassinate William in a lane between Brentford and Turnham-green, as he returned in his coach from hunting. It was also found that there was to be an invasion from France at the same moment, and that stores were already embarked at Calais, where the French troops were waiting to make a descent. Admiral Russel, with a formidable fleet, hereupon bombarded Calais, and thus prevented the interference of the French; while William, at home, was busily engaged in summarily punishing such as had favoured the design. The king endured at this time severe mortification from the objections of one party to a standing army, and from the dislike of another to himself; and he was so greatly enraged at being obliged to give up his body-guard of Dutch soldiers, that he declared he would relinquish the crown. Of this, however, he thought better; and when informed that the duke of Anjou had been made king of Spain by his grandfather Louis XIV., and that the French had overrun the Netherlands again, he gladly entered into an alliance against his ancient enemy. He was not, however, permitted to enjoy the pleasure of humbling France; for his horse falling under him, in riding from Kensington to Hampton-court, he broke his collar-bone, which brought on a fever, of which he died, March 8, 1702, in the fifty-second year of his age. He was interred in Henry VII.'s chapel, near the remains of his queen.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Episcopacy abolished in Scotland, 1689, in consequence of the refusal of the bishops to take the oaths of allegiance to William, and Presbytery declared the national form of worship. The presbyterians consider that Christ intended the ministers of his church to be on a level in dignity with each other, and affirm that presbyter and bishop meant anciently the same thing. In the Scottish presbyterian church (or *kirk*, as it is usually called), every act which in other churches emanates from a diocesan bishop, is the joint work of a certain number of clergymen and laymen, acting together with equal authority, and deciding every question by a plurality of voices. The laymen are called *lay-elders*; and every parish has in it two or three of them. They are grave and serious persons, chosen from among the heads of families of known orthodoxy; and they are constantly employed in suppressing vice and cherishing piety, being appointed to their office by their clerical brethren, who, in the presence of the congregation, give them what they term ordination, setting them apart to their office by solemn prayer.

The Massacre of Glencoe, 1692.

The Highlanders of Scotland had shown great hatred to the change of dynasty; but having been at length intimidated, William ordered that all insurgents should take the oath of allegiance to him before the thirty-first of December, 1691. The chiefs of the few tribes that had been in arms for James, complied soon after the proclamation; but Macdonald of Glencoe failed in submitting within the limited time, more however from accident than design. The chieftain hurried to Inverary during the severest weather of winter, and entreated the sheriff to receive his submission, explaining the cause of his delay; but Sir John Dalrymple, William's secretary for Scotland, refused to do so, and secretly obtained from the king a warrant for his death. A party of soldiers being purposely billeted in the neighbourhood of Macdonald's house, that chief, who was not dreaming of a plot, invited the officers to partake of the hospitality of his roof. They accordingly came, and had passed an evening of innocent mirth, when, on a sudden, lieutenant Lindsay, with a party of soldiers, called in a friendly manner at the door. He was instantly

admitted; and the chief, as he was rising to receive him, was shot in the back, and fell dead at his feet. A general slaughter of the villagers ensued. Neither age nor infirmity was spared: women defending their children, were slain; boys imploring mercy, were shot by the men to whose knees they were clinging; and in one room, nine persons sitting at a meal, were shot dead through a window. Such as fled to the mountains, perished by famine, or the inclemency of the season, the snow being incredibly deep; and on the day after the massacre, the village of Glencoe was laid in ashes by colonel Hamilton. William had all the circumstances of this horrible transaction related to him; but he took no notice of it; and in the parliament, Dalrymple, now earl of Stair, artfully declared that the whole had originated in mistake.

Battle of La Hogue, 1692. The French now took up the cause of the exiled James with great sincerity. Having got together an army of English and Scotch refugees, the excellent Irish regiments who had held out at Limerick, and a body of their own men, they prepared 500 transports to carry them over to England. William, to his alarm, ascertained that the whigs, and not the Tories, were the main agents in this plot; and it was clear that even the princess Anne, who now repented of her former conduct, favoured the design. With great precaution, therefore, a fleet was prepared under admiral Russel, which encountered the French admiral Tourville off La Hogue; and by dint of numbers, Russel was successful. Sir George Rooke at the same time burned eighteen of the enemy's vessels in the bay; and thus concluded the last attempt to reinstate king James.

Death of Queen Mary, 1694. This event was the only one which appeared to affect William deeply: he had never shown much regard for his consort while living, but shut himself up for many weeks, and refused to see

any of his court, when she died. Her obsequies were performed with great magnificence; the body being followed from Whitehall to the abbey by both houses of parliament. As a wife (which is rarely the case with one who has been an undutiful daughter), Mary deserved great praise. When asked what she intended her husband should be, if she became queen, she replied, 'All rule shall be vested in him. *Husbands, love your wives*, is the command I wish him to remember; and I shall follow the injunction, *Wives, be obedient to your husbands in all things.*' All her efforts were to promote William's interests, and make him beloved by the people; and her letter to lady Russel, in which she deplores the bustle and pomp of royalty, because it separated her so greatly from her husband, is an interesting proof how much more powerful were the feelings of the woman than those of the queen.

The Revolution. The British constitution was restored to its primitive purity, and the protestant succession guaranteed, by this event. *The Bill of Rights*, proposed to the prince of Orange 1689, and afterwards enacted in parliament, declares that the claims therein set forth are the indubitable rights and liberties of the people. To suspend laws, &c. without the consent of parliament, was thenceforth illegal; and freedom of speech or debate in parliament, cannot be questioned in any court out of parliament. The supreme power is divided into two branches: the *legislative*, consisting of king, lords, and commons, in parliament assembled; and the *executive*, consisting of the king only. The king is the head of the army, navy, and national church; and his councils consist of the high court of parliament, the peers of the realm, the judges, and the privy-council. That portion of the privy-council, called the *cabinet*, does not properly form a recognised part of the constitution of England, though, in practice, it is a most important branch

of the government, comprising those great public officers, who are the effi-

cient and responsible servants and advisers of the crown.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Portugal under Pedro II. It has been shown how he supplanted his brother Alonzo, after whose death he ruled the state with great prudence twenty-two years, dying 1705.

The Battle of Narva, 1700, wherein

Charles XII. of Sweden defeated Peter the Great of Russia.

Prussia was erected into a Kingdom, 1701, Frederick I. elector of Brandenburg, being acknowledged its sovereign.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Sir Isaac Newton learned mathematics under the erudite Barrow; but so quickly comprehended Euclid, that he passed to higher pursuits. Analysis, Fluxions, Optics, were all aided by him (Fluxions invented); and his grand discovery of the laws of gravitation, arising, as is said, from his reflecting upon the fall of some apples from a tree in his garden, has rendered his name immortal. His 'Principia' (Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica), which records his conclusions in astronomical matters, has set his name above those of the philosophers of ancient and modern times. He held many public offices, especially that of master of the Mint, under queen Anne, and became a great favourite with Caroline, queen of George I. Newton accomplished his discoveries, almost unconscious of their greatness; and ascribed them, as men of true genius usually do, to mere patient drudging thought. But his thoughts were the highest flights of mind; and what to him was a mere ordinary deduction, would have seemed to an inferior spirit a gigantic effort. Newton, as an experimentalist, elicited results which challenge preference over those of almost any other philosopher; and while in abstract mathematics he had no rival but Leibnitz, in the applied departments of mathematical science, he was superior to all men but the modern Laplace. The whole range of physico-mathematical dynamics, and especially its application to the actual phenomena of the planetary system, is due to the unaided powers of Newton's mind. He died, aged eighty-five, 1727.

Burnet, bishop of Salisbury, noted for his spirit of toleration, which he acquired by visiting the continent early in life, and seeing worthy persons of all creeds. He was chaplain to Charles II., but was often suspected of designs against the government; and his attendance upon lord Russel during his trial, gave great offence. William made him a bishop; and when he wrote a pamphlet to show that William's right to England was founded on conquest, the parliament ordered it to be burned by the common hangman. His Histories of the Reformation and of his own Times, are well known. He died 1715, aged seventy-one.

Boileau, the French poet who in his 'Art of Poetry' surpassed the 'Ars Poetica of Horace,' in the happy arrangement of his ideas, the harmony of his numbers, and the purity of his language. Louis XIV. declared he wished all his subjects to partake the same intellectual gratification from his writings which he himself enjoyed.

Locke, the illustrious moral philosopher, upon quitting Oxford, found a friend in lord Ashley (afterwards Shaftesbury), who, when chancellor, gave him preferment. He followed the fortunes of his patron, even to his exile in Holland; and after being suspected of treasonable practices, returned to England at the revolution, and resided in the family of Sir Francis Masham at Oates until his death, aged 72, 1704. His 'Essay on the Human Understanding,' though often prolix, discursive, and obscure, is accounted the best ontological treatise we have,

and claims the merit of having advanced metaphysical science very materially. It, however, has justly subjected the author to the reproach of making indirect attacks upon revealed religion.

Dryden, after completing his education at Cambridge, devoted his life to poetry. At one time in comparative wealth, and then under the harrow of poverty, he had yet amazing patronage, and was noticed by James II., to please whom he turned catholic, for which the wits of the day did not spare him. His translation of Virgil is the book by which Dryden will go down to posterity, though he wrote it in haste, and at a period when he worked off verses at so much a line for his daily bread. His 'Alexander's Feast' is probably the most popular lyric poem in our language; and his 'Ode on St. Cecilia's Day,' though written late in life, shows him as great as ever in imagination and fire. Dryden died 1701, aged seventy.

Purcell, the most original of English composers, was organist of the chapel-royal, St. James's. His anthems were used in every cathedral, his stage and concert pieces supplanted all other productions, and until the rise of Handel, full thirty years after, no other vocal music than Purcell's was listened to with pleasure. His greatest works are the Te Deum, Jubilate, Ye twice ten hundred deities (considered the finest piece of recitative in the world) a series of anthems, and a whole service in the key of B flat. His brother Daniel, was an organist also; but far more renowned as the first punster of his day.

Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, being always delicate in health, travelled much, and died at Naples 1713, aged forty-two. His chief work, 'Characteristics of men, manners, opinions, and times,' gained him high reputation as a philosopher; but while lauding Socrates and Democritus as deities, he wholly disregarded revealed religion.

Pope Innocent XI., a reformer of the Catholic church, was continually

opposed to Louis XIV., refusing to admit to bishoprics such as were recommended by that monarch. He condemned the errors of the Quietists, and, singularly enough, made a strong coalition with the Turks.

Stillingfleet, bishop of Worcester, whose 'Origines Sacrae,' or a rational account of natural and revealed religion, written at twenty-seven, still astonishes by its erudition, elegance, and cogency of argument. He died 1699.

Bayle, a Frenchman who fled to Rotterdam, when Louis XIV. suppressed the protestant college of Sedan, of which he was philosophical professor. His most laborious work, the historical and critical Dictionary, though an extraordinary production, must justly be condemned for its licentiousness and impiety.

Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray, and author of *Telemaque*, a work which, though in prose, ranks high amongst epic poems, and by the elegance of its style, and the sublimity of its moral, has secured universal applause. The book, however, gave great offence to Louis XIV.; as the court considered the author intended *Sesostris* to represent Louis, *Calypso*, Madame de Montespan, *Idomeneus*, James II., and so on. Fenelon was also cited by the pope, to give a reason for his support of the claims of Madame Guyon to exalted devotion. He had his preferment for his education of the dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berri. So greatly was he respected even by foreign nations, that when the duke of Marlborough passed with his troops in hostility near Cambray, he ordered his men to refrain from spoliation in Fenelon's diocese. He died, aged sixty-four, 1715.

Galland, a French oriental scholar, travelled under the patronage of Colbert; and dwelling some time amongst the Arabs of Asia, collected from their lips a variety of romantic tales, which he published at Paris, under the title of 'Contes Arabes,' now better known as the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, a work which has gone through

many editions in every European language. Its descriptions of the customs and manners of eastern nations, pagan and Mahometan, are allowed by all travellers to be singularly accurate. The employment of the machinery of Genii, is quite in accordance with the Arabian creed. The people suppose these creatures to have governed the world before Adam; and they divide them into good and evil angels, and giants, who, say they, originally made war upon men, but have since been confined to one region, called Gimmistan, or the land of the genies, the fairy site of our old romances. Gian ben Gian was the sovereign of these creatures, as well as of the Peris (beautiful and good fairies of both sexes); and after ruling 2000 years, Eblis, or Lucifer, was sent by the deity to drive the genies to a distant part of the world, and confine them, for their rebellion. The shield of Gian, like that of Achilles, was sevenfold, and as famous: three successive Solomons possessed it, and performed with it marvellous exploits, by destroying enchantments of every sort. The last of the three was the son of David, whom the eastern historians affirm to have had not only men, but good and evil spirits, the birds and the winds, subjected to him; and who was possessed of a ring of wonderful efficacy, which seems to have been no other than the extraordinary wisdom with which he was divinely endowed. Eblis himself is believed to have rebelled eventually against the supreme deity, and to have been confined to a region of terror, with power over myriads of discontented followers; of which tradition Mr. Beckford has made so much in his masterly composition of 'Vathek.' Mr. Hole, in his remarks on the Contes Arabes, considers Sindbad as the Arabian Odyssey, and as descriptive of real places and manners; and he has taken no small pains to ascertain the locality of the islands which Sindbad

visited. The character of Haroun Al Raschid accords in every respect with the facts narrated of him by authentic historians. Galland died 1715.

Cellarius, a German, who, as professor of history at Halle, produced learned editions of classic authors; but he is best known for his system of geography, being almost the first who paid due attention to that science, without which and chronology, history would be unintelligible. Hence geography and chronology are said to be the *two eyes* of history. He died 1703, aged sixty-nine.

Evelyn, a gentleman of fortune, educated at Oxford, who took an active part in the Restoration, and had various lucrative appointments both before and after the Revolution. His 'Sylva' and 'Diary' are highly interesting books; the former occasioned a great planting of timber trees throughout the kingdom, and the latter is an entertaining journal of the civil wars, &c., as observed by a private individual. Evelyn died, aged eighty-five, 1706.

Thomas Wilson, after being tutor to lord Derby's son, was made by that nobleman bishop of Sodor and Man. With a revenue of 300*l.* a-year, he built a new chapel at Castleton, and founded parochial libraries throughout the island. In 1721 he quarrelled with the governor of Man, for allowing the introduction of an obnoxious book into the place; and the latter found means to imprison the prelate. The privy-council, however, reversed the sentence; but nothing would induce the amiable bishop to prosecute the magistrate for his injurious conduct. He was so attached to the island, that he refused an English see; and he died there, aged ninety-three, 1755. His 'Duties of Christianity,' was the first book ever printed in the Manks language; and his work on the Sacrament is too well known to need commendation.

The Land Tax established. This tax on the landed property of England was introduced when a new valuation of estates was made throughout the kingdom, 1689; which, though by no means a fair one, had the effect of raising a supply of 500,000*l.*, by a rate of one shilling in the pound on the value of estates given in. The present method of levying is by charging a particular sum on each county, according to the valuation of 1689; and this sum is raised on individuals, by commissioners appointed in the act. The rate is four shillings in the pound; and the tax may be redeemed by the owner of the land on which it is laid; or, in default of his redeeming it, it may be purchased by any other person, the money paid in either case being applied to the reduction of the national debt.

Bayonets invented by the French, 1693. As this instrument turned the musket into a pike also, it greatly changed the system of war; battles have been fought with the bayonet on the musket, without a shot; and the Prussians have been thought superior to all others in its use.

Morden College, Blackheath, was founded 1695; for decayed Levant merchants. Sir John Morden, a Turkey merchant, after many reverses of fortune, raised this substantial building, and placed therein twelve fit objects of his bounty. The pensioners now amount to forty, with an allowance of 40*l.* per annum, excellent apartments, coals, candles, washing, and the attendance of servants. The

treasurer resides in convenient apartments in the edifice, as well as the chaplain: each has a salary, and must be akin to the founder. The pensioners dine together in the common-hall (as at the universities), at the expense of the college.

Charity Schools established first in London, 1689, to educate the lower orders in the principles of the protestant faith.—*Lottery first drawn.* This public licence of gambling has been in recent days abolished, much to the credit of the nation.—*The Bank of England established*, 1694.—*Kamtschatka discovered by the Russians*, 1701.—*The Society for propagating the Gospel in foreign parts instituted*, 1701.—*The Mississippi colonized by the French*, 1702.—*Coffee*, imported through Holland from Turkey, began to be used as a beverage by the higher classes in England. It was known as a cordial, *temp. Car. I.*

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey.* 1687, Solymán III.; 1691, Achmet II.; 1695, Mustapha II. *Popes.* 1689, Alexander VIII.; 1691, Innocent XII.; 1700, Clement XI. *France.* 1643, Louis XIV. *Russia.* 1682, Iwan V. and Peter I. Alexiovitch; 1696, Peter I. alone, first emperor. *Sweden.* 1660, Charles XI.; 1697, Charles XII. *Denmark and Norway.* 1670, Christiern V.; 1699, Frederick IV. *Portugal.* 1683, Pedro II. *Spain.* 1665, Charles II.; 1700, Philip V. *Germany.* 1658, Leopold I. *Poland.* 1674, John Sobieski; 1696, Frederick Augustus I.

SECTION VI.

ANNE, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1702 to 1714—12 YEARS.

Personal History. Anne was second daughter of James II. by the lady Anne Hyde, and was born 1665. She married prince George of Denmark, 1683, and had by him no less than thirteen children, all of whom died young. She was of the middle height and well-proportioned: her hair brown, her complexion ruddy, her features regular, and her aspect more comely than majestic.

She was naturally clever, but her education had been neglected : and not having much vigour of body, she displayed throughout her reign the character of an amiable woman, rather than of a great queen. Having sorely repented of her undutiful conduct as a daughter, she became an excellent wife, mother, and friend ; as a mistress she was most indulgent, as a patron highly munificent. She was warmly attached to the church of England, and to her people, and fully merited the title she so generally acquired of ' the good queen Anne.' Her husband died six years before her ; and was son of Frederick III. of Denmark.

Political History. Anne ascended the throne in her thirty-eighth year, to the satisfaction of all parties. William had died on the eve of a war with France ; and the new queen, who took the advice of both whigs and Tories, knew not whether it would be better to prosecute that war, or remain at peace. The earl of Rochester, head of the Tories, was for peace : the earl (afterwards duke) of Marlborough, the leader of the whigs, was for war. The whigs prevailing, war was declared, on the ground that Louis XIV. had invaded the liberties of Europe, by taking possession of the Spanish dominions, and by acknowledging the title of the Pretender to the throne of England.

Louis, who had been long fettered by the policy of William, was solacing himself when he heard of his death, and was greatly surprised therefore at the sudden hostility of Anne ; nevertheless he made hasty preparations ; and when Marlborough, at the head of 60,000 English arrived at Nimeguen, the duke of Burgundy, with Marshal de Boufflers as his acting general, was ready to oppose him with an army of tolerable strength. The first campaign, in which the French constantly gave ground, ended in Marlborough's taking Liege, in which was an immense sum of money : while at sea, the duke of Ormond, at Vigo, had captured eleven galleons, with above a million of money in silver. But in other respects naval matters were not successful ; especially in the case of admiral Benbow, who, while bravely attacking the French admiral Du Casse in the West Indies, was basely deserted by his fleet, and left to fight for four days alone, against the whole French squadron. Marlborough's second campaign was of no moment ; but in 1704 he was opposed by marshals de Villeroy and Tallard, the two best reputed generals of France, when, assisted by prince Eugene of Savoy, he wholly defeated them at Blenheim, and got possession of one hundred leagues of country. While the English were thus successful by land, Sir George Rooke took Gibraltar by sea, and defeated the French off Malaga. At the same juncture, Anne's ministry took up the cause of the emperor's son Charles, in his attempt upon the Spanish crown, fitting out a fleet and army in England for him ; but the English cared for little but the successes of their favourite Marlborough, who, in 1706, at the battle of Ramillies, wholly defeated Villeroy again, and thus obtained all Brabant.

It was now that the Tories, who had become paramount in Anne's court, accused Marlborough of pursuing his own glory, rather than that of the nation. Taxes were daily increasing. Spanish affairs, too, looked darkly : the duke of Berwick had entirely routed the English supporters of the German prince, and Philip was again recognised as king of Spain. The English admiral, Sir Cloudesley Shovel, had found a watery grave, together with all in his own ship, and the crews of many others of his fleet, in a violent storm amongst the Scilly rocks. Marshal Villars, again, was beginning to recover ground in Bavaria ; and what was worse than all, Marlborough himself, throughout 1707, marched and countermarched, but declined to engage the enemy. Dissatisfaction, and gloomy fear, soon overspread the country : and it was a happy circumstance that the union with Scotland was at this instant forced upon the attention of the nation, to divert it from the state of continental affairs.

The treaty which effected the union stipulated that the succession to the United Kingdom should be vested in the house of Hanover; that England and Scotland should be represented by one parliament; that all the subjects of what was now to be called Great Britain, should enjoy a communion of privileges; that Scotland should be represented in the parliament by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; that all peers of Scotland should be considered as peers of Great Britain; and that the courts of law in Scotland should remain with the same authority and privileges as before the Union. So important a measure was not carried without a considerable display of violence in the English house of commons. The Scots at the same time complained of the loss of their commercial influence, and of the consequent ruin of their trade.

Meanwhile the duke of Marlborough, in concert with his allies, pushed matters against the French, and at Oudenarde and Malplaquet defeated them with immense slaughter, compelling Villars to give up, without striking a blow, a strong line of intrenchments. His last enterprise was the taking of Bouchain, 1711, which opened a way into the heart of France. On the duke's return from this campaign, he was accused of having taken a bribe of 6000*l.* a-year from a Jew, who had contracted to supply the army with bread; and the queen thought proper to dismiss him from all his employments. This suspension led to a change in general politics, and peace was made with the French 1713, by the treaty of Utrecht; whereupon vast numbers of French protestants, who had been imprisoned for their opinions, were set free.

The whigs and tories were now more than ever in arms against each other on the Union question, as well as on that of an unbroken hereditary succession to the crown; the tories, on the latter point, evidently desiring, though they never openly avowed it, that Anne's brother, afterwards known as the pretender, should succeed her, in preference to a prince of the house of Hanover. The queen, however, who had been much affected by the violence of the factions, suddenly became ill, and fell into a lethargic insensibility; and her distemper gained ground so fast, that her life was in one day from the attack despaired of. On the 30th of July she appeared to be somewhat better, and was enabled to rise: being supported across her room, she fixed her eyes upon a clock which stood there, and continued gazing at it, until one of her ladies asked her what she saw more than usual? to which her majesty only answered by turning upon her a dying look. She was soon after seized with apoplexy; and never spoke, to the period of her death, August 1, 1714. She died in the fiftieth year of her age, and was buried in Westminster-abbey.

As Anne never acted in political matters, without consulting one or more persons, in whose judgment she placed a blind confidence, it is curious that females were usually her most influential counsellors. These, of course, were the mere tools of the two factions; but with so much spirit did Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, advocate and keep up the war against Louis XIV., and with so much skill did Mrs. Masham bring about the treaty of Utrecht, which terminated the whig policy, that they appeared to be acting upon their own responsibility. From the surprising number of learned characters existing throughout this reign, it is usually called the Augustan age of England; not that the queen was a great patron of literature, but it was her singular fortune to have, even amongst her statesmen, minds of the highest cast, and polished by the most refined taste.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Union of Scotland with Eng- | tempest occurred in the south of Eng-
land, 1706; as in the history. | land, November 27, 1703, which a
The great Storm. A tremendous | writer of the period thus describes:

Horror and confusion seized upon all, whether on shore or at sea. No pen can describe it, no tongue can express it, no thought can conceive it, unless theirs who were in the extremity of it. To venture abroad was to rush into instant death, and to stay within afforded no other prospect than that of being buried under the ruins of a falling habitation. Some, in their distraction, did the former; others the latter, and in their own houses re-

ceived their final doom.' The damage in the city of London alone was computed at nearly two millions sterling; at Bristol it was about 200,000*l*. In the whole, it was supposed that the loss was greater than that produced by the great fire of London, 1666. In Little Wild-street chapel, Lincoln's-inn-fields, a sermon is annually preached on this day, in commemoration of the calamitous occurrence.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

The Succession War in Spain. This contest (before alluded to) lasted from 1701 to 1714. Philip V. having been acknowledged sovereign by the Spaniards, Charles, son of the emperor Leopold, and afterwards emperor himself, as Charles VI., who, by a former treaty of the European powers, had been appointed heir to the crown, accepted the invitation of the insurgent Catalonians, and, by the aid of the Portuguese and English, mustered a force of 12,000 soldiers, commanded by the earl of Peterborough. Barcelona, with a garrison of 5000 men, instantly fell to the earl; and in consequence of this success, Valencia, Aragon, and Granada, declared for Charles; while Peterborough entering Madrid, proclaimed him king of Spain without opposition, 1706. But when lord Galway was placed in the earl's room, as general in chief, the state of affairs was lamentably changed. This nobleman, on hearing that the duke of Berwick was at the head of Philip's troops at Almanza, advanced thither to give him battle; but the Portuguese, by whom the English were supported, betaking themselves to flight on the first charge, the soldiers of Lord Galway were flanked, and surrounded on every side. In this dreadful emergency they formed themselves into a square, and retired to an eminence; where, being ignorant of the country, and destitute of all supplies, they were obliged to surrender prisoners of war, to the number of 10,000 men. This victory was decisive; and all

Spain, except the province of Catalonia, returned to its duty to Philip. The war, however, was continued by Charles, though without the aid of the English; but after the treaty of Utrecht (having succeeded his brother Joseph as emperor, 1711), he was glad to give up the contest, 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary.

Poland under Frederick Augustus I. Most violent contests took place about the succession, on the death of John Sobieski; but at last Frederick Augustus, elector of Saxony, prevailed, 1696. As, however, the primate had refused to perform the ceremony of his coronation in all its details, the Poles scarcely regarded him as their king; and his difficulties were greatly increased by the consequences of a league he had entered into against Sweden, in conjunction with Denmark and Russia. Charles XII., the young monarch of Sweden, attacked him with irresistible fury; and Frederick, beaten at Riga, Clisson, and Frawstadt, was stripped of his dominions, 1704, and consented to see his crown placed on the head of Stanislaus. The defeat of the Swedes at Pultowa, 1709, however, proved favourable to him: he recovered the Polish throne, and maintained his power and independence until his death in 1734. Frederick was notorious for his personal strength; and his court was, for a long time, one of the most brilliant in Europe.

France under Louis XIV. This was the longest reign in French annals, extending over 72 years, from 1643 to 1715, and comprising the period from Charles I. to George I. in English history. Anne of Austria, as regent for her infant son, selected Cardinal Mazarin for her minister. France was engaged, at the time of Louis XIII.'s death, in wars with Germany and Spain; and it was in the former country that the prince of Condé began to display his talent for war, and brought the Austrians to request a peace. The civil faction of the Fronde broke out at this period. De Retz, afterwards a cardinal, opposed Mazarin in his attempt to levy some taxes; and as he was supported by the duke of Longueville and other powerful noblemen, arms were resorted to, and the royal family driven from the capital. Condé played a dubious part during the dispute, and passing into Spain, levied a force, with which he marched into Paris; soon after which the king was recalled, and De Retz banished.

Louis, now of age, commanded an army against the Spaniards, who were led on by his own subject and relative Condé: the result was favourable to the allied English and French; Dunkirk was taken, and given to the English, and Condé soon after received pardon from his sovereign. Upon the death of Mazarin, Colbert succeeded as finance minister; and he not only relieved the people from the burden of many taxes, but greatly added to the revenue of the country. The fine arts were encouraged, and the Louvre built as a national gallery for their display; the manufactures of porcelain and lace were especially advanced in character; and the Gobelins tapestry was worked. When the triple alliance was formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, Louis drew off his forces from Spain; and he subsequently joined the English in their war with the Dutch under the prince of Orange, who afterwards ascended the British throne.

The king's religious advisers, Père la Chaise and Louvois, having urged the extirpation of the Huguenots, Louis revoked the edict of Nantes, and allowed the most cruel butchery of those conscientious persons. The Spanish succession war next followed; and Louis was enabled, by various intrigues, to place his grandson on the throne of Spain, with the title of Philip V. As Louis supported the claim of the Pretender to the English throne, the duke of Marlborough took the command of queen Anne's armies, and joined the Germans in their vigorous attempts to crush a power, which had robbed them, in seizing Spain, of their richest possession. While Marlborough was driving the French from Germany, and taking the Spanish Netherlands, prince Eugene was obtaining like advantage over Louis in Italy; and in a few months, all that had been gained by the valour of Turenne and Condé, and by the skill of Mazarin, was irretrievably lost to France. The king, after witnessing the death of his sons the dauphin and duke of Burgundy, and of his grandson, by the smallpox, died, respected for his spirited efforts to maintain the honour of his country, and for his deference to men of superior judgment and excellence. In his domestic character he was early inclined to liberalism: his attachment to Mademoiselle de Vallière, a woman of many virtues, was soon shifted to Madame de Montespan, and Madame de Maintenon; to all of whom, it is affirmed, he was successively married.

The Stadtholdership abolished, 1702.

Seizure of Hungary. Ragotski, a Polish noble, being accused by the emperor of Germany of an attempt to revolutionise Hungary, declared himself protector of that country, and prince of Transylvania, 1703. He maintained his power until 1713, when the Austrians compelled him to retire; and he died near Constantinople, 1735. His memoirs of the revolutions of Hungary are highly interesting.

The Man with the Iron Mask died 1703. For many years the curious of all countries were busied in their endeavours to ascertain who this person was. Soon after the death of cardinal Mazarin, the court of France ordered a young man of dignified mien to be guarded, first in one prison, and then in others, with peculiar strictness; and, in order to prevent his face being seen, he was compelled to wear a mask, composed principally of iron. The utmost deference was ordered to be paid by all concerned in his detention, as if attendant upon a prince of the blood; but loaded muskets were constantly in the hands of those who watched him in his walks, and death was denounced against any one who should aid his escape. He eat off plate, and was sumptuously lodged and apparelled. At length he died in the Bastille, aged, according to his own account, sixty, but according to that of the gaolers forty. He never told who he was, though he often secretly attempted so to do, by writing on the walls and windows of his rooms. As he was alleged to be the duke of Monmouth, and various other important characters presumed to have forfeited their lives to the laws of their country, it can only now be surmised that he was some scion of the royal house of France, whose claim to the throne, if urged, might have endangered the safety of the existing powers.

Gibraltar taken by the English admiral, Sir George Rooke, 1704. The whig ministers disregarded this gallant man, who died in retirement 1709, observing, as he made his will, 'that the little he should leave had been honestly gotten, had never cost a sailor a tear, nor the nation a farthing!' Gib-

raltar, which may now be termed an impregnable fortress, has ever since remained in the hands of the British, though thrice besieged by the Spaniards with a view to its recovery. It is probably the most perfect fortress in the world, the natural rock allowing room for excavating long galleries and guard-rooms, wherein the cannon are planted as on board ship, loopholes being bored for their muzzles towards the sea; and range above range of those deadly engines being pointed in all directions, so as to scour the sea beneath, and prevent an entrance, if requisite, from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean. The Roman name of this rocky mount was Calpe, and it formed one of the pillars of Hercules with the opposite mount Abyla, in Africa.

The Treaty of Utrecht 1713, which put an end to the long war with Louis XIV., and gave to England the important island of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay in North America, besides confirming to the same crown the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca.

The Pragmatic Sanction, 1713, was made by the emperor Charles VI.; who, having no sons, settled his dominions on his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa. The word pragmatic is from the Greek *pragma* (business); and in civil law, a pragmatic sanction implies the answer of a sovereign, with consent of his council, to some college or community of persons, who or which may have consulted him in some case of their society. The like answer when given to an individual is called a *rescript*.

Herculaneum accidentally discovered, 1713. (See *Pompeii*.)

EMINENT PERSONS.

Joseph Addison, the son of a clergyman, after a liberal education, completed at Oxford, wrote a Latin poem on the peace of Ryswick; on the appearance of which, Montague, chancellor of the exchequer, gave him a pension of 300*l.* a-year. He then tra-

velled over Italy, and described what he saw, in an elegant epistle to lord Halifax. Godolphin appointed him to celebrate the victory of Blenheim; and was so delighted with only the commencement of the production, that he made him commissioner of appeals.

Devoting all his leisure hours to literature, Addison passed many years in performing the duties of various honourable offices, until he was, in 1717, made secretary of state. His fame had been established by his tragedy of 'Cato' long before this period; but his papers in the 'Spectator' will be the basis of his celebrity as a writer; and he has the great merit of being the first to throw off the stiffness which pervaded our language, written and spoken, up to this period. Addison is also highly estimable for his assiduous labours to strip vice of her meretricious attire, and to robe religion and virtue with their own attractive and exalting graces. This excellent man married, 1716, the countess dowager of Warwick, an union which in no way increased his happiness; and died, aged 57, 1729.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, finding his country threatened with invasion by the sovereigns of Russia, Denmark, and Poland, though only sixteen years old, resolved, with all the fire of an Alexander, to attack his enemies one by one, before they could put their armies in motion. Sailing to Copenhagen, he landed at the head of his troops, in spite of the opposition on the shore; and speedily put the panic-struck Danes to flight. Having become master of the intrenchments, Charles fell upon his knees before his army, to thank God for this first signal success of his arms. A peace being the result, he proceeded to find the czar Peter, who was ravaging Ingria, on the pretence of having been slighted by the Swedes when he passed *incognito* through their country. At Narva he came up with him, Peter having invested that place with 100,000 men in the depth of winter, the cold being 50 degrees below zero. Charles had not more than 20,000 soldiers, and only 8000 of those were actually in advance when he first attacked the Muscovite outposts, who, retreating upon the main body, astonished the czar's officers by assuring them that the Swedes, with an army

larger than their own, were at hand. In the action which ensued, Charles received a bullet in his left shoulder; presently after, his horse was wounded and fell; and he had no sooner mounted another, when its head was carried off by a cannon-ball. As he was leaping into the saddle of a third, 'These fellows,' said he, 'give one exercise,' and proceeded, regardless of his wound, to urge the carrying of the intrenchments, which in three hours was effected. With 4000 men the king pursued 50,000 Russians towards the bridge, which broke under the pressure; so that the river was filled in an instant, and thousands perished under the ice. Thirty thousand prisoners here surrendered to not a sixth-part of their number; and on the general-in-chief and other officers of the Muscovites giving up their swords, Charles graciously returned them, and even supplied their leader, the duke of Croy, with 1000 ducats, and every officer with 500.

This great victory occurred 1700; and Charles thereupon hastened to attack his third foe, the king of Poland. Charles determined on dethroning Frederick Augustus, if possible, for declaring himself his enemy without cause; and having routed his troops at Clissau, near Warsaw, 1702, the cardinal primate was forced to declare James Sobieski, son of the late sovereign, king of Poland; Augustus, however, contrived to seize Sobieski's person; whereupon Charles, struck with the talents and activity of Stanislaus Leczinski, the young palatine of Posnania, proposed him to the Polish Diet; and as he attended that assembly himself on the day of election, was the first in the crowd to cry out 'Vivat' when Stanislaus was nominated. The people instantly threw up their hats in the air, and received their new monarch with apparent joy. As the czar was now mustering his forces, with a view to surround the Swedes in Poland, Charles posted with very few men to Borislau, on the Beresina, where the Russians intended to dis-

pute his passage. Here, in the night, he constructed a bridge, and crossed over to the enemy, before they knew of his arrival in the neighbourhood. At his very name the Muscovites fled; and at Hollarin, 20,000, who thought themselves safely intrenched behind a morass, were suddenly surrounded by the king and his party, Charles setting the example of leaping into the morass, and with the mud and water above his shoulders, landing sword in hand amongst them. When Peter heard of this gallant attack, he sued for peace; but Charles, bent on humbling his rival, as he had done Augustus, returned for answer, 'I will only treat with the czar at Moscow.' As Mazeppa, prince of the Cossacks in Ukraina, was then in arms against the czar, Charles was induced to join that chieftain: but Mazeppa's defeat, before this could be effected, placed the king in so dangerous a situation, that had it not been for the arrival of his general Levenhaup with 5000 men, the fate of the Swedish army would speedily have been decided.

The winter of 1708-1709 was one of the severest ever known; and the Swedes, in a country full of marshes, and amongst a people little above the savage tribes, fell a sacrifice to it, to the amount of 2000 in a few days. Still Charles would proceed: and in May laid siege to Pultowa, on the way to Moscow, with 40,000 men, half Swedes, half Cossacks. In a short space of time, he carried the advanced works, and took the curtain. But one morning, while riding too near the fortifications, he received a shot in the heel; and from his characteristic silence upon the subject (continuing to give orders for six hours afterwards), there was great probability of his being obliged to lose his leg. One of his surgeons told him his only chance of saving it lay in making deep incisions, but that such a course would give his majesty great pain: 'Cut away, friend,' said Charles, 'and fear nothing, I am not afraid;' and while the operation was performing, he held the

leg himself with both hands, looking upon all that was doing with perfect coolness. While the wound was being dressed, news arrived that the czar, with 70,000 men, was approaching; and the king ordered his army to be in readiness next morning to give him battle, reminding his officers, that fewer Swedes had before beaten 100,000 Muscovites.

On the 8th of July, 1709, therefore, was fought the battle of Pultowa between two of the most famous monarchs of modern history. At four in the morning, the Swedes, with Charles in a litter at their head, began the attack, and in a few minutes threw into confusion the main body of the Russians. This success continued for some hours, until Charles for a time got on horseback, to give his orders with greater facility: his leg, however, became extremely painful, and he had just returned to his litter, when two horses which drew it were shot dead, and others had scarcely been put to it, when a cannon-ball struck the carriage to pieces, and overturned the king in the dust. It was soon reported that he was killed, and from that instant the Swedes gave way in all directions: the first line fell back upon the second, and the second fled. Charles, carried upon pikes by four grenadiers, and covered with blood and dirt, called out, 'Swedes! Swedes!' in vain: and had not general Poniatowski, a Polish officer, who had followed the fortunes of Charles, then come up, the king, as well as Mazeppa, would have been captured. Count Piper, and all the officers of the chancery, fell into the hands of the Russians; but Poniatowski enabled Charles and about 2000 men to cross the Borysthenes, on the way to Turkey. The Bogh, however, was still to be crossed; and while delayed on its banks, by the refusal of the Turks to receive a foreign force, without an order from the sultan, 500 more of Charles's diminished troops were seized by the Muscovites. After much ceremony, the Swedes were provided with lodgings, and every

other convenience, at Bender; where the Cossack prince died.

The czar having advanced upon Turkey soon after Charles's arrival at Bender, the Turks attacked him on the Pruth, and surrounded him with 200,000 men, to the great delight of the Swedish monarch, who hurried to the scene of action, anxious to witness his rival's disgrace. But before he could reach the Pruth, the Turks had entered into a treaty with the czar; whereupon Charles, returning in a rage to Bender, declared he would not quit Turkey until justice had been done to his cause. The sultan having entreated him in vain to go, at length threatened to force him out; and the king suffered himself to be besieged at Bender by 26,000 Turks and Tartars, with only 300 Swedes to defend him! The slight intrenchments of the obstinate monarch were carried in an instant, and his 300 surrounded; when Charles, who was on horseback with three officers, Hord, Dardoff, and Sparre, cried, 'Let us go and defend the house: we will fight there *pro aris et focis*!' Immediately he galloped up to his residence, wherein were forty domestics, who had barricaded the building in the best manner they could. A crowd of Janizaries having already got into the house, the king rushed upon them sword in hand; and the fellows, in the height of their alarm, leaped most of them from the windows.

The Swedes, when they had cleared the apartments, barricaded the windows, and through loopholes killed 200 Turks in a few minutes. The cannon of the besiegers had no effect, on account of the thickness of the walls and the softness of the stones: so that they contrived at length to set fire to the wooden roof and doors of the building. The place being soon in flames, one Walberg proposed to the king a surrender. 'What a strange fellow,' said Charles, 'to think it not better to be burned than to be made prisoners!' Another sentinel, Rosen, projected that which pleased the mo-

narch better; namely, that they should escape to the chancery-house, only a few paces off, which had a stone roof, and there defend themselves. 'Spoken like a true Swede!' exclaimed Charles, and made him a colonel on the spot. Great was the astonishment of the Turks, when they saw the besieged party, whom they supposed suffocated, rush out of the doors unhurt, and with pistols in their hands make for the chancery. Every man fired twice as he came forth, and then drew his sword; and the besiegers, in amazement, retreated full fifty paces before they dared attempt to surround the assailants. The king, however, having long spurs to his boots, was thrown down by their entanglement; when twenty-one Janizaries fell upon and disarmed him. The scene must have been laughable enough, when some taking hold of his arms, and others of his legs, Charles was borne, struggling as he went, to the pacha's quarters: but on a sudden he became calm, and even smiled upon his bearers, as if thinking both he and they had fairly done their parts. The Janizaries hereupon could not help shouting 'Alla!' and treated him at once with the most profound respect. In fact, the troops about Bender had previously shown great attachment to the hero; especially when they saw he went to public prayer morning and evening with his soldiers, and drank nothing but water.

Charles was removed in honourable durance to Demotica; but in order not to seem a prisoner, or to avoid the visits of the Turks, he determined to lie in bed, as if sick; and for ten months never quitted his chamber. Hearing then that affairs were proceeding badly in Sweden, in consequence of his long absence, he asked for passports to return home; and the sultan very liberally provided him an escort of 300 horse, and sixty waggons laden with provisions of every sort. But Charles hated all ceremony, and gave his escort the slip in the dark, making the best of his way *incognito* on horseback. He had only one attendant, colonel

During, whom he soon tired out, and who, by stratagem, induced the king to travel, after a time, in a post-chaise; and thus, in November, 1714, they arrived at Stralsund, in the Swedish territory, in the night.

In Stralsund his enemies, the kings of Denmark and Prussia, besieged him; and there is no history which records more heroic deeds than those performed here by Charles XII. He lost the place at length, but escaped in an open boat, in spite of the cannons of the enemy; which killed several around him, and split the mast to pieces. To revenge himself upon the Danes, he besieged Frederickshall in Norway, notwithstanding the severity of winter, December, 1718. Here, for days and nights, he was only a few hours at a time away from the men employed to construct the trenches, in which, while balls were pouring into them from the enemy's forts, he gave audience to the French ambassador and others, who saw, to their alarm, the labourers drop dead frequently, while within a few feet of the king.

It was upon the 11th of December, that, while kneeling upon the inner talus, he leaned with his elbows upon the parapet, watching the men that were carrying on the trenches by starlight, his body being exposed to a battery of cannon exactly levelled at the angle where he was, and no one being near him but two Frenchmen (Siker, his aide-de-camp, and Megret, an engineer), king Charles was perceived to fall against, and with his head over, the parapet. He had apparently been struck in the right temple by a half-pound ball; and his hand being upon the guard of his sword, as if he had endeavoured to draw it, many afterwards suspected that he had been assassinated by some one from behind. He was only thirty-six at the period of his death.

Collier (Jeremy) a divine who had the merit of reforming the British stage and its writers. The wits of his day derided him in every way, but he persisted; and from his time the pieces

represented in the great theatres were infinitely more chaste than they had previously been. Collier was a great opponent of the revolution. He died 1726.

Rowe (Nicholas) a tragic poet, whose 'Jane Shore' is his most attractive piece. He was laureate, and translated Lucan's 'Pharsalia;' but he wants sublimity, although always pleasing and instructive. He died 1718.

Pope (Alexander) the illustrious poet. No English writer has been more correct in versification, or more dignified and splendid in diction than Pope; and it has been well said, that he had the art of giving life to every subject he touched. His 'Rape of the Lock,' and 'Epistle from Heloise to Abelard,' are amongst this best works; though probably his translation of Homer is that which has most tended to establish his fame. He died, aged fifty-six, 1744.

Congreve, the dramatic poet, held places under Lord Halifax to the amount of 1200*l.* a-year, and died rich. Voltaire says he raised the glory of English comedy to its greatest height. His best works are 'Love for Love,' 'The Mourning Bride,' and 'The Way of the World;' but all his plays are tinged with the licence of his day. He died 1729.

Corelli, the inimitable composer for, and player of the violin, was born and died in Italy. His style is not only peculiar, but elegant and pathetic in the extreme.

De Foe, the son of a butcher, having escaped the grasp of Judge Jeffreys, when he had joined Monmouth's rebellion, set up as a hosier in London, and wrote many pamphlets in defence of the revolution. His 'Shortest way with the Dissenters,' which was an ironical recommendation of persecution, so gravely covered, that many persons were deceived by it, brought upon him the ire of the commons: and he was put into the pillory, fined, and imprisoned, for writing so seditious a libel. But the fame of De Foe is securely established by his 'Robinson Crusoe,' supposed to be the adventures

of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, who lived more than four years on the uninhabited island of Juan Fernandez; of which it is needless to say more, than that it has been translated deservedly into all the living languages of Europe. It is said that the isle which was the chief seat of the hero's adventures, has recently disappeared from the western coast of South America. De Foe died 1731.

Hughes (John), whose name as a poet is established by his tragedy of 'The Siege of Damascus.' He was the friend of Addison, Pope, Congreve, and Rowe; and through lord Cowper's patronage, was made secretary to the commission of the peace. He died during the first performance of his excellent tragedy, 1720.

Swift (Jonathan), dean of St. Patrick's, was introduced to king William by Sir William Temple, his relative; but that monarch did nothing for him. Harley, in Anne's reign, employed him to write in defence of the court, and gave him his deanery. The Irish, as a nation, were indebted to Swift for his advocacy of their cause on all occasions; and their gratitude to him was extreme, when, by his letters under the assumed name of Drapier, he prevented a projector named Wood from coining 180,000*l.* of copper-money, which might have ruined the country. At the close of his life he lost his mind: and died in a state of idiocy. He was an eccentric and blameable man in private life. He married Stella, the daughter of Sir William Temple's steward, with whom his pride, it is supposed, did not permit him to live; and he broke the heart of a Miss Vanhomrigh, a young woman of fortune, who was not aware, until her affection for him was deeply rooted, that he had a wife. The latter, in Swift's writings, appears under the name of 'Vanessa.' As an author, Swift was, when he chose, correct and elegant in the extreme; and as an humourist, punster, and satirist, he has scarcely his equal. His letters are only equalled in facility by those of

Cowper. His 'Gulliver's Travels,' a singular mixture of misanthropy, satire, ingenuity and humour, and his 'Tale of a Tub,' wherein he ridicules popery and puritanism with equal force, are books which will probably ever remain popular. He died 1745, aged seventy-eight.

South (Robert), a divine, whose commencement in life was of a time-serving character. He lauded Cromwell, and extolled Charles II. with equal fervour; yet he was afterwards offered a bishopric, and refused it. He was a morose man, but a deep-thinking one, as his very excellent sermons show.

Ray (John), the son of a blacksmith, who, having entered the church, spent his leisure hours in the study of botany and natural history. His best work is, 'The wisdom of God manifested in the works of Creation.'

Philips (John), educated at Oxford, was so attached to tobacco (being asthmatic), that he said something in its praise in every thing he wrote. His fame as a poet rests upon his 'Splendid Shilling,' which describes the most trivial things in the lofty language of Milton.

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, of whom it has been said, 'that he never besieged a city which he did not take, nor engaged in a battle in which he did not come off victorious.' He went into the army very early, so that his education was neglected; he served with Monmouth at the siege of Nimeguen, and captured that ill-advised prince when he rebelled against James II. He was made an earl by William; but was sent to the Tower for inclining to the cause of the princess Anne. In Anne's reign he was for many years her general and adviser; while his wife was her complete ruler. After his victory over Tallard at Hockstet, the queen gave him Woodstock-manor; and Blenheim-house was afterwards built for him, and the government of the post-office, worth 5000*l.* a-year, added for ever to his title. After his deprivation, he retired to Holland for two years; but he returned

in George's reign, and gave advice to that monarch in the Pretender's invasion of 1715, whereby it was crushed. He died 1722, aged seventy-three.

Belsunce, bishop of Marseilles, a jesuit, whose name is immortalized by the humanity of his conduct during the plague in his city, 1720. Day and night did he run from street to street, administering relief. Louis XV. offered him a richer bishopric as a reward; but nothing could tempt him to quit Marseilles, where he died 1755, mourned as he deserved.

Gay, when bound apprentice to a mercer, purchased his indentures, got introduced to Swift and Pope, and turned poet. The patronage of the duchess of Monmouth enabled him to obtain many diplomatic appointments; and when his 'Beggars' Opera' came forth, the duke and duchess of Queensbury resigned their places at the court (which his opera was written to satirize) to patronize him. He now took up his abode at the duke's mansion at Amesbury, and wrote there many of his poems, when his constitutional melancholy would permit him to compose. His 'Fables' are still deservedly popular for their easy style of narration and moral excellence. He died 1732.

Wren (Sir Christopher) when he had completed his education at Wadham, visited France to inspect its buildings; and after the fire of London, was employed to build St. Paul's cathedral, and fifty-three other churches. The theatre at Oxford and Trinity college library, Cambridge, are his. He was buried in St. Paul's, 1747, with this inscription on his tomb: 'Lector, si monumentum requiris circumspecte!'

John Norris, after an education at Winchester and Oxford, sat down at his living, Bemerton, Wilts, to write on theological subjects. His 'Immortality of the Soul,' the most talented and singular of his works, has caused him to be considered the head of English mystics or Platonists. He was a mild, amiable, and humble man, greatly beloved by his parishioners; and although an idealist in philosophy,

and what a large class would consider an enthusiast in his religious notions, no one can read his work on the 'Soul,' or his attack on 'Locke's Essay,' without being struck with admiration at the extent of his knowledge, the solidity of his judgment, and his logical force and acuteness.

Dr. Sacheverell, a divine, who for preaching two sermons (at Derby, and St. Paul's) wherein he censured some political measures of lord Godolphin, was imprisoned, and suspended for three years from his clerical office, his sermons being burned by the common hangman. As he had advocated high tory principles, queen Anne herself was known to applaud him, and her ministry was soon dissolved. No less than 40,000 copies of the first sermon he preached after his confinement were sold, and the living of St. Andrew's, Holborn, was given to the author. He died 1724.

The Two Duciers, husband and wife, were educated by her father, Tanaquil Faber, and became two of the first critics in France in classical literature; translating into their language, and commenting upon, all the treasures of Greece and Rome.

Baron Leibnitz, the rival of Newton, was born at Leipsic, and died aulic counsellor to the emperor of Germany 1716, aged seventy. He invented the Calculus Differentialis, after a visit to England, in which he gained some insight into Newton's Fluxions; and this led to a violent dispute amongst physical men concerning the original inventor. It is now settled in favour of Newton; but Leibnitz is presumed not to have been a plagiary. The coincidence was curious; but it has more than once happened, that some very important discovery in philosophy has been made at the same moment, by even more than two individuals residing apart from each other. Leibnitz took up theology also; and wrote to confute both sceptics who believed too little, and papists who believed too much. His doctrine of Optimism has been at-

tacked by Voltaire, in his 'Candide,' with that writer's usual ingenuity.

Sir Richard Steele, son of the duke of Ormond's secretary, whose comedy of 'The Conscious Lovers' is his best dramatic production. But the fame of Steele rests on his invention of periodical essay-writing; and his fund of original wit is copiously poured forth in the pages of the *Tatler* and *Spectator*. He was an improvident person, notwithstanding great patronage, two wealthy marriages, and success as a writer; and he died almost a poor man, 1729, aged fifty-eight.

Peter the Great, of Russia, shared the throne at first with his brother Iwan; and, to gain the army to his interests, enlisted as a private soldier, gradually rising to command. He became sole emperor when Iwan died 1696; and seeing he had no navy, he went in disguise to Amsterdam to learn the process of ship-building, working in the arsenal as a carpenter. He then came to England, on the same errand, and laboured in the same manner at Deptford; taking back with him to Russia a party of shipwrights, by William's permission. Having founded his new capital, St. Petersburg, he invited the learned and skilful of all nations to reside there: and after the battle of Pultowa, induced 3000 Swedish officers to settle in his dominions, and instruct his people. The breaking of the alliance with Charles XII. by the Turks, was occasioned by Peter's empress, Catherine, who succeeded him; she sent a large sum of money to the grand vizier, and thus saved her husband's life, to commemorate which he founded the order of St. Catherine. After establishing an army of 100,000 men, building colleges, and founding schools of science in every department, Peter died 1725, aged fifty-three.

Mazeppa, page to John Casimir,

king of Poland, having engaged in an intrigue with a married lady, was fastened by her husband to the back of a wild horse, and left to his fate. The animal having been bred in the deserts of the Ukraine, directed his course thither; and expiring at length with fatigue, dropped beneath his miserable rider, who was found by the Cossacks half-dead. His talents and knowledge soon raised him to eminence among a people where all power was elective; and when their hetman was deposed, 1687, Mazeppa was chosen to fill his place. In this post he acquired the confidence of Peter the Great; but becoming tired of his dependance on the czar, he entered into a secret league against him with Charles XII. When Peter discovered the affair, he took Batourin, the capital of the Ukraine; and Mazeppa fled thereupon to the king of Sweden. The issue of that alliance has been shown.

Parnell, an Irish divine and poet, who obtained preferment through dean Swift. Elegance, delicacy, and grace, rather than energy, mark his works; his 'Hermit,' for its piety, morality, and didactic sweetness, is one of the most admirable poems in our language. He died 1717, aged thirty-eight.

Matthew Prior, the poet, was a joiner's son, whom lord Dorset, his schoolfellow at Westminster, sent to St. John's, Cambridge, and introduced to king William, who made him secretary of state in Ireland. He was next member for East Grinstead; and Anne sent him as ambassador to France. He quarrelled with the parliament after this, and was imprisoned; but, on his release, he retired to his seat, Downhall, Essex, where he died 1721, aged fifty-seven. Prior's great poetical power lay in telling a tale with an ease and vivacity scarcely equalled by any other votary of the muses.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, INSTITUTIONS AND USAGES.

St. Petersburg founded 1704, by the czar Peter, and made the capital of the Russian dominions, in lieu of Moscow.

St. Paul's Cathedral, London, completed by the son of Sir Christopher Wren, the illustrious founder of it, 1710. This noble structure occupies above two acres of ground, and cost one-and-half million of public money: the railing round it cost 11,000*l*.

English South Sea Company instituted 1710. The payment of the sailors of the royal navy had been neglected during the long war with Louis XIV.; and promissory tickets being given to the men in lieu of money, they were constantly sold by the poor fellows to usurers, who discounted them at forty and fifty per cent., until they all fell into their hands, to the amount of nine-and-half millions. These unprovided debts of the nation induced Mr. Harley, chan-

cellor of the exchequer, to offer the owners of them six per cent. per year, and allow them to form a trading company to the South Sea and the coast of America, to promote the fisheries, and general commerce.

Interest on money in England limited to five per cent., 1714.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey.* 1698, Mustapha II.; 1703, Achmet III. *Popes.* 1700, Clement XI. *France.* 1643, Louis XIV. *Russia.* 1696, Peter I. *Sweden.* 1697, Charles XII. *Denmark and Norway.* 1699, Frederick IV. *Portugal.* 1683, Pedro II.; 1705, John V. *Spain.* 1700, Philip V. *Germany.* 1658, Leopold I.; 1705, Joseph I.; 1711, Charles VI. *Poland.* 1696, Frederick Augustus I.; 1704, Stanislaus Leczinski; 1709, Frederick Augustus restored. *Prussia.* 1701, Frederick I.; 1713, Frederick William I.

ENGLAND UNDER THE STUARTS.

The rule of the first members of this unfortunate house was a continued struggle between privilege and prerogative. But it is observable that, however jealous the Stuarts were of their rights as kings, they seem to have acted in mere self-defence, and with a full conviction that it was their duty to maintain inviolable that authority which, during the most regular course of English government in former times, had been exercised without dispute or controversy. The Tudors were far more tyrannical than the Stuarts; and what was no error in Elizabeth, was regarded in the first Charles (though the constitution continued unaltered) as an unpardonable aggression. The English had been distinguished for their apathy towards state-matters; but when the art of printing had enabled opinion to become active, the people began to concern themselves with the doings of their superiors, and stimulated to inquiry as the public mind had been by the events of the

Reformation, the progress therefrom to the overthrow of monarchy, and thence to the Revolution, was facile, and, without a prodigious share of tact on the part of the ruler, politically natural. The latter event was hailed by a large portion in the now enlightened nation, not so much because it ensured civil and religious liberty, as that it established the popular power, in the great precedent of deposing one king and setting up another.—The commerce and riches of England had never, during any previous period, increased with so great rapidity as between the restoration and revolution; and the sun of science burst forth in meridian splendour, ushered into the world by the illustrious philosophers Bacon, Newton, and Locke. The peaceful disposition of the first James, associated as it was with (whatever may have been advanced in derision of his pedantry) a highly cultivated mind,—proved beyond a doubt by his still existing writings,—had contributed to

place our nation in a respectable rank amongst the polished kingdoms of the continent; and after the restoration, the court of St. James's became the centre of attraction to foreigners, through the easy and graceful demeanour of the sovereign. After the revolution, polite literature was greatly patronized; and when the sterling productions of a Milton came to be estimated, the witty but indelicate poetry and other works of the restoration were consigned to merited oblivion. In Anne's reign England places her Augustan age. Architecture and the

fine arts had gained, in the first Charles's reign, a stability which even the fanaticism of the commonwealth was not able to overthrow. The mode of dress of both men and women underwent extraordinary changes during the dominion of the Stuarts; but the most remarkable variation was in the style of ornamenting men's heads, by changing the flowing hair of the first Charles's time for the immense peruke of the restoration, which was continued, without the pointed beard, until the days of queen Anne.

PERIOD THE SEVENTEENTH.

The House of Brunswick.

1714 TO 1837 — 123 YEARS.

SECTION I.

GEORGE I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1714 TO 1727—13 YEARS.

Personal History. George I. great-grandson of James I. through the female line, and eldest son of the first elector of Hanover, who was also duke of Brunswick, was born 1660. His person was that of a German, his countenance sedate, approaching to solemnity: he was affable, though ceremonious, and was seldom cheerful but in the presence of his German adherents. He displayed a marked preference on all occasions for his continental dominions, and for German persons and things. Having been noted for a strict economy in the management of his Hanoverian state, he was fully capable, at the age of fifty-four, when he succeeded to the British throne, of understanding how best he might pursue its interests, without neglecting the glory of his acquired sovereignty. He married Sophia, daughter of George duke of Zell, by whom he had—1. *George II.*; 2. *Sophia*, who married Frederick William, king of Prussia, father of Frederick the Great. The marriage of George I. proved very unhappy: the pair were divorced before his coming to England, and the queen was imprisoned in the castle of Ahlen thirty-two years, until her death in 1726.

Political History. King George landed from Germany at Greenwich, and walked to his residence in the park, accompanied by the duke of Northumberland and the lords of the regency. Before he went to bed on the night of his arrival, he sent for such peers as had supported his claim, especially the duke of Marlborough; and declared that his maxim was 'to do justice to all the world; never to abandon his friends, and to fear no man.' It was soon how-

ever seen that the whigs alone were his friends ; and under the changed titles of Hanoverians and Jacobites, the two great parties, therefore, stood prepared for the fight with greater acrimony than ever. George's new parliament began with impeaching the tory ministry of the late reign ; and the earl of Oxford was sent to the Tower. As tumults of the people became every day more frequent, every movement served only to increase the severity of the legislature ; and an act was now passed declaring that if any persons, to the number of twelve, should continue together one hour after being required to disperse by a proper officer, they should be deemed guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy ; (an ancient privilege granted to the clergy, who, being accused of felony, might appeal to go before their respective bishops to be cleared. The benefit sometimes extended to the church itself ; and felons taking refuge within its consecrated aisles, could not be arrested.)

Such vindictive proceedings excited the indignation of the people, and a rebellion was the consequence in Scotland ; where, to their other grievances, they joined that of the Union. Some of the tories hereupon began to associate with the partisan's of James II.'s son, commonly termed the Pretender ; and in a short time, the earl of Mar proclaimed him king of Scotland at Castleton. Two ships arrived from France with arms, and the earl was soon at the head of 10,000 well-provided men. The duke of Argyle, commander of all king George's northern troops, attacked the earl near Dumblane, and claimed the victory ; while another party of the insurgents was defeated more decidedly at Preston, November, 1715. The prince landed from France soon after ; and, having been crowned at Scone, returned to the continent with some of his most ardent supporters. Other parties of the pretender sounded the south ; but they also were put down, and great severity was instantly practised upon the officers who had been taken prisoners. These, amongst whom were many Scottish peers, were paraded through the streets of London, pinioned and bound together, to intimidate their friends ; and in a few days lords Derwentwater, Nithsdale, and Kenmuir, were ordered to be executed on Tower-hill, Nithsdale, however, escaping by the intrepidity of his wife.

The danger in which the state had been placed, was now made a pretext by the whigs for the continuance of the parliament for seven years, instead of being dissolved in three, as heretofore : this was passed into a law, and all objections made to it were considered as the result of disaffection. The injustice, however, of the proceeding is evident enough ; for no delegated body can have a right to extend its power in this way : if the commons could sit for seven years, by their own mere consent, they could sit perpetually, without even the shadow of a nomination. Meanwhile Charles XII. of Sweden, highly provoked that the English ministry had joined the Russians and Danes in a confederacy against him while at Bender, had been maintaining a close correspondence with the pretender's party in England ; and had himself resolved to land with an army somewhere on the island. But his death at Frederickshall put an end to George's fears ; and the king became a party to the celebrated quadruple alliance. Germany, France, Holland, and England, bound themselves by this treaty to make certain exchanges for the emperor, who was to give up his right to Spain, and take Sicily from the duke of Savoy. The arrangement, however, displeasing the king of Spain, a rupture ensued between that power and the emperor, which rendered Spain hostile to Britain, and served to raise again the declining hopes of the pretender and his adherents. It was hoped that, by the assistance of cardinal Alberoni, the Spanish minister, a new insurrection might be raised in England ; and the duke of Ormond was therefore granted by Alberoni ten ships of war and transports, having on board 6000 regular troops, wherewith to make a descent. A violent storm, however,

disabled the fleet entirely off cape Finisterre; and this misfortune, together with the ill success of the Spanish arms in Sicily, induced king Philip to sign the quadruple alliance.

An act of parliament, which made the Irish senate dependant on the British, gave great concern at this period to the Irish people; but the South Sea Bubble, as it was called, caused all minor evils to be disregarded; and the whole nation was stupefied by the ruin brought upon it, through a phrensied desire to amass boundless wealth. When the effects of this calamity were beginning to wear off, a new war with Spain commenced; and admiral Hosier attempted to seize the Spanish galleons, or ships which conveyed the silver from the South American mines to European Spain. He failed, however, in his enterprise; and the climate cutting off his men by thousands, Hosier fell sick, and died of a broken heart. By the French mediation, peace was renewed; and George now determined on a visit to his continental dominions. Having appointed a regency, 1727, he crossed to Voet, in Holland; next day he proceeded on his journey, and in two days more, between ten and eleven at night, arrived at Delden, to all appearance in perfect health. He supped there very heartily, and continued his journey early next morning; but between eight and nine o'clock ordered his coach to be stopped. It being perceived that one of his hands lay motionless, M. Fabricius his attendaut (who had been about the person of Charles XII.) attempted to quicken the circulation, by chafing it between his own; but the king soon after fell into his arms, and never spoke again. At eleven the next morning he expired; and his body was conveyed to Hanover for interment. He was sixty-seven years of age.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

The Pretender's Invasion, 1715, as in the History.

The South Sea Bubble, 1720. The nature of the South Sea stock has before been shown. Sir Robert Walpole, the minister, formed a design in 1721 of lessening the national debts; and as this was not the only association to which the state owed money, he offered to all the national creditors five per cent. interest, instead of six, or agreed to pay them the principal. The different companies chose rather to receive the diminished interest than the principal; whereupon one Blount, a scrivener, proposed to the ministry, in the name of the South Sea company, to buy up all the debts of the various companies, so that the South Sea might become the sole creditors of the state. As the terms offered to the government were highly advantageous, involving a reduction of interest, after six years, of one per cent., &c., a bill passed both houses to allow the transaction; but now came the part of the scheme big with fraud and ruin. As the directors of the company could not

be supposed to possess sufficient money to buy up the debts of the nation, they were empowered to raise it by opening a subscription to an imaginary scheme for trading in the South Seas; from which immense advantages were promised, and still greater expected by the rapacious credulity of the people. The directors' books were no sooner opened, than crowds came to make the exchange of government stock for that of South Sea. The plan succeeded beyond the projectors' hopes, the stock increased to nearly ten times the value of what it was first bought for, and the whole nation was infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise. A few months passed away, however, and the delusion was at an end: and thousands of families, which had been living in comfort and even splendour, were involved in one common ruin. The directors were stripped of their unjust gains; such as had seats in parliament, or places under government, were deprived of them, and even some of the ministry were disgraced on the same account.

Rise of Hutchinsonianism. John

Hutchinson, who, after being steward to the duke of Somerset, obtained from his grace a sinecure post. His education, in Yorkshire, had been wholly private, and he had long devoted himself to the collection of fossils, with a view to prove the truth of the Mosaic account of the creation. He at first associated himself in a work on the subject with Dr. Woodward; but appeared in 1724, as sole author of a book called *Moses' Principia*, wherein assailing Newton's doctrines of a vacuum and gravity, he contends for a plenum and air; and hints that the idea of the Trinity was to be taken from the three grand agents in the system of nature, fire, light, and spirit, these three conditions of the same substance, *air*, being remarkably typical of three persons in one and the same essence. This notion was favoured by Dr. Samuel Clarke, and, with other doctrines of Hutchinson, has been supported by more recent divines, including the amiable bishop Horne, Jones of Nayland, and Parkhurst.—Conceiving that all knowledge, natural as well as theological, was contained in the scriptures, Hutchinson assigned to every Hebrew root a spiritual or mental meaning, in addition to the sensible object to which it referred.

Perhaps the best argument against the utility of such discussions is contained in these two propositions: 1st, that Moses, in becoming an historian, did not purpose to compose a work

on natural philosophy, but simply to account for the origin of man, his fall, and the necessity of his redemption; and 2dly, that all that natural philosophers have discovered has tended to confirm the truth of the Mosaic account of both the creation and the deluge in very unexpected ways. Geologists, for instance, have shown that the bones of man are never found in a fossil state, but that those of all other animals constantly are; thus practically illustrating the truth of the solemn denunciation, 'Unto dust shalt thou return!' Again, natural philosophers have proved that fire, and consequently light, have an existence independently of the sun, the matters of heat and electricity subsisting in an inert and latent mode in all created substances, from which by various processes they can be elicited; destroying at once what was formerly a powerful argument amongst the opponents of Moses against the invention of light three days before that of its depository, the sun. As to any deduction from the use by Moses of the expressions 'the sun rose and the sun set,' that would be as absurd as to conclude that the Maker of all things had a variable mind, from mention being made that he *repented* of having made man. These are the mere colloquialisms of language: to the eye the sun does rise and set; and we can think of no immaterial being, without our imagination imbodying it with both form and passions.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Siege of Stralsund, 1715. The sovereigns of Denmark and Muscovy, with 36,000, sat down before Stralsund, Oct. 19; whereon the king of Sweden, with 9000 men, observed that no place so well garrisoned and fortified could be taken. Treachery, however, effected what military skill might not have done. A Swedish soldier happening to fall from the retrenchments into a marsh that was always covered by the Baltic sea, was surprised to find it had a bottom: and to make his fortune,

the villain deserted and told the fact to the enemy. Charles was astonished to find his retrenchments suddenly taken from behind; and got his men into the town again, not without great slaughter. As some Danes and Russians had already landed on the isle of Rugen, over against Stralsund, the king, at eight at night, after he had been all day defending an outwork, embarked in a fishing-boat, and reached the island with Poniatowski, Grothusen, During, and Dardorf. The

Swedes, 2000 in number, were however overpowered; and Charles had the mortification to see his favourite Grothusen, During, who had accompanied him from Bender, and general Dardorf, fall. After this fruitless attempt, Charles, shut up in a fortress which was every hour becoming less tenable, by no means gave way to despair. He was surprised at nothing. All the day, he was making ditches and intrenchments behind the wall, and at night he sallied out upon the enemy; while the townspeople, though they saw their houses crumbling under the bombs every instant, far from repining, followed their king to the sallies with alacrity, being astonished at his temperance, fatigues, and courage.

One day as this extraordinary monarch was dictating to a secretary a despatch for Sweden, a bomb falling on the house came through the roof, and burst very near his room. Part of the floor fell, but the closet where he was being worked into a thick wall, was undisturbed; and by great good fortune none of the splinters came in at the open door. In the confusion the secretary dropped his pen; when Charles, with his peculiar quickness, said, 'What ails you—why don't you go on?'—'The bomb! Sire, the bomb!' was all that the frightened amanuensis could exclaim.—'The bomb, sir!' said Charles, 'what has the bomb to do with our business?—pray go on.' Charles would converse for hours together in the trenches with count de Croissy, the French ambassador, while people fell on all sides by the bombs

and balls, the king never once offering to shift his post. Croissy, however, obtained the enemy's permission to depart; and Charles was left amongst the ruins of Stralsund, with but a third of his garrison remaining. In four days more, the allies obtained almost entire possession. Two days however after that, the Swedish hero maintained his post on a little ravelin that was nearly destroyed by the bombs; when the chief officers entreated him to stay no longer. Charles pointed out to them that there was more danger in trying to escape than in staying there; but you (he said) may go, if you like. They persuaded him, however, at last to get into a small boat: four hours it took to break the ice enough to let the vessel out of the port; and then they had to pass the Barbette de Rugen, where the enemy had planted twelve cannon to prevent the king's escape. The first shot killed two of the party, and the next shivered the mast to pieces: the boat, however, surmounted the danger, and in half an hour its little party was taken up by a Swedish frigate.

The Morea in Greece was taken by the Turks from the Venetians, 1715.

At Belgrade the Turks were defeated by prince Eugene, 1717.

The Duke of Savoy acknowledged king of Sardinia, 1720.

Philip V. of Spain abdicated, 1724, in favour of his son Louis; who dying soon after, he reascended the throne.

Russia raised to an Empire, and the title of czar abolished, 1721.

EMINENT PERSONS.

John Lord Somers, chancellor of England, celebrated not only as an upright magistrate, but for his learning, and his patronage of learned men. As a statesman, he was uncorrupted in the midst of political chicanery; as a speaker, he was most eloquent; as a patriot, he was unflinching and sincere; and as a man of refined taste, he was surpassed by none.

Cardinal Alberoni was the son of a

gardener near Placentia, and worked with his father till the age of fourteen. Campistron, the favourite of the duke of Vendome, introduced him to his patron, for having sheltered him in his house, when he had been plundered by banditti, on his way to Rome, Alberoni being then a priest of the cathedral of Placentia. When Vendome was at the head of the army in Spain, after having established Philip V. on the

throne, by the victory of Villa Viciosa, 1710, Alberoni was employed by him to supplant the princess of Ursino (who had gained an ascendancy over the king), by urging his marriage with one of the house of Parma. Philip espoused the lady in question; and Alberoni was appointed prime minister of Spain, and made a cardinal. His abilities gave vigour to the nation, and soon infused such a spirit of activity and enterprise, that, after a lethargic repose of a century, Spain rose to the hardihood and heroic deeds of her forefathers. Madrid became the centre of negotiation and of intrigue; and the cardinal had formed the design of placing the Pretender on the English throne by the hands of Charles XII., of seizing Sicily, of depriving the Germans of their power in Italy, together with other vast projects, when Orleans, regent of France, and George I. declared war against Philip 1719, making it a main condition of peace, that Alberoni should be banished from the court. He accordingly retired to Rome, and died at Placentia, aged eighty-eight, 1752.

Nicholas Saunderson, who, though blind from his first year by the small-pox, rose to eminence as a mathematician. When he took up his abode at Cambridge, Whiston encouraged him to lecture before the university on the Newtonian philosophy, which he did to crowded audiences, and with such ability that, when Whiston was removed from the Lucasian chair, he was elected to fill it. He died, aged fifty-seven, 1739.

Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne, who injured his fortune by crossing to the Bermuda isles, to found a college for the conversion of the savage Americans. Pope attributes 'to Berkeley every virtue under heaven;' and as a scholar and philosopher, he ranks high. His 'Minute Philosopher,' in dialogues, is a masterly performance, after Plato's manner.

Le Sage, a French writer, who passed his life in translating the Spanish romances and plays into his own

tongue. His 'Diable Boiteux' (ludicrously styled in English, 'The Devil on two Sticks'), and his 'Gil Blas,' are the best known of these amended versions.

Harley, Earl of Oxford, the rival of Bolingbroke, rose to be speaker of the commons, and lord high treasurer. He was one of the commissioners to settle the union with Scotland, and displayed in every part of his conduct a sincere love of country.

Dr. Richard Bentley, eminent as a critic. His 'Boyle's Lectures on the Being and Power of a God,' first made him known; and he became in consequence librarian at St. James's. This post gave rise to a long and celebrated controversy. Mr. Boyle had obtained a MS. from the library to complete his 'Epistles of Phalaris;' and when Bentley called for the book sooner than was expected, Boyle took offence, and a paper-war arose, which drew forth on both sides the most brilliant and spirited exhibition of wit, criticism, and erudition. A caricature appeared on the occasion, representing Bentley about to be thrust into the brazen bull of Phalaris, and exclaiming, 'I had rather be roasted than *Boyled*.' When Bentley was master of Trinity college, Cambridge, the fellows accused him of embezzling the money of the society; a charge which created the most violent contentions, and which after twenty years duration, established the innocence of the master. He also quarrelled with the university when, as divinity professor, he refused to admit Middleton and others to the degree of D.D. without a fee of four guineas; but on the matter being referred to the king's bench, it was decided in Bentley's favour. On this occasion Middleton behaved towards Bentley with great asperity, because he had termed him 'fiddling Conyers,' in consequence of his great devotion to the violin. The doctor preserved his unshaken firmness during these struggles; and his editions of Terence, Homer, Phædrus, and Milton's *Paradise Lost*, show how well he

employed himself through the whole period.

Conyers Middleton, the eminent critic. His 'Life of Cicero' is a very elegant and valuable work; though in his love for his subject, he has rendered the great orator more than human.

Mead, the excellent and eminent physician. He was with queen Anne at her death, and was constantly about George II. He was a patron of learned men, a friend of the poor, and never took fees of the clergy.

Prince (John), a divine, of Axminster, Devon, educated at Oxford. He wrote the 'Worthies of Devon,' a work of great merit, and still highly popular.

Boerhaave, the Dutch physician. As professor of physic and botany at Leyden, his lectures were crowded with students eminent for their talents, by whom he was respected and beloved; and he was admitted a member of almost all European learned societies.

Dr. Samuel Clarke, a controversial divine, whose life was passed in sustaining the attacks of other clergymen, as he published his book on the Trinity and other works, displaying opinions at variance with orthodoxy. His talents were great; his Cambridge exercises were noted for their purity and elegance, and his letters show his profound knowledge of natural science.

Hoadley, bishop, first of Bangor, and then of Winchester, a polemical writer, whose discourse in 1717, on 'My kingdom is not of this world,' produced the famous Bangorian controversy. This dispute, occasioned by the prelate's attack on the temporal power of the clergy, was kept up by Sherlock, Potter, and others, who charged him with an intention to undermine all establishments, and that of the church of England in particular; and it is certain that Hoadley's arguments thereupon assailed the rights of princes as much as those of the clergy. Hoadley, who died, aged eighty-four, 1761, was amiable in pri-

ate life; but as a disputant, he is censurable for his inclination to make reason superior to the pure precepts of the gospel.

Geminiani of Lucca, the pupil of Corelli, who was patronized by king George, and produced some of his best pieces for the violin during his residence in England. He died at Dublin of grief at the loss of the MS. of his treatise on music, by the theft of a servant-maid.

Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, entered early into controversy with Bentley, Hoadley, and others, and was raised to the mitre by William. George I., however, slighted him, and he became the violent opponent of all that king's minister's (Walpole's) measures. He was accused therefore of collusion with the Pretender, and suspended; and he died at Paris, 1731, aged sixty-nine. He was exemplary in private life; great and eloquent as a preacher; and as a writer admirable for his Sermons and Letters.

Whiston, after taking holy orders, joined the baptists, and was ejected from the Lucasian chair at Cambridge on that account. His 'New Theory of the Earth, on the Newtonian System,' was greatly admired in his day; but his truly valuable works are his 'Boyle's Lectures on the Prophecies,' and his translation of Josephus.

Prince Eugene of Savoy, son of a Swiss general in the service of the king of Sardinia, became an officer in the Austrian service. When Louis XIV. declared war against Germany, Eugene so well blocked up Mantua, that the French could not for two years advance in Italy. He gained a victory over the Turks at Peterawadin, 1697, where the enemy lost 20,000 killed, 12,000 drowned, and 6000 prisoners, besides oxen, camels, and horses, and a booty of sixteen millions sterling. In the succession war of Spain, Eugene joined Marlborough; and having at Blenheim and Turin displayed his high military skill, Queen Anne, when he visited England, gave him a sword worth

5000*l.* When the Turks threatened the imperialists in 1716, Eugene took Temeswar from them, after they had held it 164 years; and reduced Belgrade. He was found dead in his bed, 1736. This eminent general always carried with him the 'De Imitatione' of Thomas-à-Kempis, observing that the good Christian made the best soldier.

Dr. Edmund Halley, after an education at St. Paul's and Oxford, turned his mind to astronomy, and succeeded Flamsteed at the Greenwich Observatory. He undertook a voyage to St. Helena, 1676, in order to make a survey of the stars in the southern hemisphere; and having observed a transit of Mercury over the sun's disc, he, on his return to England, promulgated his method of determining the parallaxes of the planets, by which the important discovery of the distances of the planets from each other, and from the sun, was effected. King William allowed the philosopher a vessel to go towards the south pole, 1698, that he might correct his notes on the variations of the needle; and he subsequently examined the course of the tides in the English channel, ascertaining the exact situation of each headland. This great man died, aged eighty-five, 1742.

Henry St. John Lord Bolingbroke, after holding office under Harley, retired from the malice of his enemies to France; and after some hesitation became secretary of state to the Pretender. Walpole hereupon impeached him; and, as a matter of course, he was an exile, until his new master quarrelled with him, and George forgave him. On his return to England, 1723, he vented his angry feelings against Walpole for nearly twelve years: and passed his latter days in the society of the learned, at his house at Battersea, dying 1751, aged seventy-nine. As a writer, Bolingbroke was nervous and elegant: he was adored by the wits, and especially by Pope, who wrote his 'Essay on Man'

at his suggestion; but he was often an impugner of the truths of Christianity, and a scoffer at all religion.

Sir Hans Sloane, the naturalist, who succeeded Newton as president of the Royal Society, resided at Chelsea, where he had large estates, still remembered by the names of Sloane-street, Hans-place, &c. He left his cabinet of curiosities, which cost him 40,000*l.*, to the British Museum.

Sir Godfrey Kneller, a German, who came to England after studying under Rembrandt. He was patronized by William III. and George I.; the latter of whom made him a baronet. Portraits were his subjects, and he was celebrated for his likenesses, though liable to flatter.

Catherine, Empress of Russia after Peter the Great, her husband. She was originally a servant in a clergyman's family in Sweden, and at eighteen married a Swedish dragoon, who was killed by the Muscovites on the day after his wedding. Being herself taken prisoner a few days after, she became servant, and then mistress, of prince Menzikof; a man whose change of fortune was similar to her own. The czar fell in love with her on seeing her at supper with the prince, and privately married her: he soon after had her crowned as empress, and left her sole ruler at his death. Thus did Europe see with surprise a woman of the lowest origin, who could neither read nor write, conduct the affairs of a great nation, and that with all the skill and vigour of her extraordinary husband. She died at the early age of thirty-eight, after a sole reign of two years, 1727.

Radcliffe, the able physician, who attained to great eminence, but lost greatly by his rude manners. He left the bulk of his fortune to found the Infirmary and Library at Oxford, which bear his name. As a proof of his bluntness, we may cite his speech to king William, after his fatal fall from his horse. Radcliffe no sooner saw his swollen ankles, than he unce-

remoniously exclaimed, 'Let me tell your majesty, I wouldn't have your two legs for your three kingdoms!'

Sir John Vanbrugh, the architect and dramatic poet, held various lucrative posts under the crown, but, from extravagance, seldom kept himself out of difficulties. His 'Provoked Wife,' and 'Confederacy' still keep the stage; but all his plays are tinged with the indelicacy of his day. He built Blenheim house for the duke of Marlborough; a splendid, but heavy pile, with scarcely an apartment of magnitude sufficiently proportioned to the size of a lordly mansion.

Thomas Guy, sometime a bookseller in Cornhill, amassed a large fortune by penurious living, the purchase of the right to print bibles, the disreputable practice of buying up seamen's prize-tickets, and by speculations in the South Sea stock. In the end, however, he made good use of his wealth: he gave 200,000*l.* to found the hospital in Southwark, which bears his name; erected almshouses at Tamworth; and left 80,000*l.* to be divided amongst such as could prove any relationship towards him.

Dr. Doddridge, son of a London oilman, became an eminent preacher amongst the dissenters. He resided at Northampton twenty-two years, respected as a divine, successful as a teacher of youth, and beloved as a private man; and died at Lisbon, whither he had gone with the hope of re-

storing his health, 1775. His 'Family Expositor,' and 'Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul,' are the most valuable of his works.

Massillon, made bishop of Clermont by Louis XIV., who said to him on one occasion, 'When I hear other preachers, I go away pleased with them; but when I hear you, I go away displeased with myself!' So effective was his style in the pulpit, that involuntary murmurs of applause would arise amongst his congregation; and in France his name was long a proverb, to denote one having the superior gifts of eloquence.

Sir Robert Walpole, prime minister during the reigns of the first and second George. In Anne's reign he was sent to the Tower, through party malice; but his attachment to the Hanoverian interest occasioned his rapid advancement by George I. He impeached Oxford, Bolingbroke, Ormond, and Strafford, and by his labours to preserve peace at home and abroad, gained great popularity; yet did he attack the court and ministry, when again turned out by the Stanhope administration, with all the zeal of a reformer. Again restored, he remained prime minister till 1742; when George II. created him earl of Orford, and he retired to his estate in Norfolk, where he died at the age of sixty-eight, 1745. He used to boast that, as a politician, he knew the price of every man amongst his opponents.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES,

Septennial Parliaments, instead of triennial, fixed by the parliament's own act, 1716.

Lombe's Silk-throwing Machine first used at Derby 1719, whereby one water-wheel moved 26,586 wheels, and worked in twenty-fours, 320 million yards of organzine silk thread, 1721.—*Inoculation for Smallpox* tried first on criminals.—*The Beer called Porter invented*. The three beers in use in England had been long known by the respective names of twopenny, ale, and

INSTITUTIONS, AND USAGES.

beer; when one Harwood, about 1720, produced a liquor which partook of the united flavour of the three, calling it *entire butt*, because it came from one cask. This beverage being soon in request by porters and other labouring men, it acquired the name of *porter's beer* from the populace.—*Pewter made first of Antimony and Bismuth*. The best pewter is a mixture of lead, tin, and brass. *Brass* is also a mixed metal, and compounded of copper and zinc. *Steel* is only the

hardest and finest iron combined with charcoal, by a particular process.—*Loadstone*, or magnet, is a muddy iron ore, in which the iron is modified in such a manner, as to afford a passage to a fluid called the magnetic fluid. It is known by its property of attracting steel-filings, and is found in Spain, Sweden, and Siberia. *The pure metals* are seven: gold, silver, platina, copper, iron, lead, and tin; quicksilver is an imperfect metal, and found mostly in the silver-mines of South America, Spain, and China.

Whitehall Preacherships founded, 1721, by George I. with suitable allowances. The preachers are twenty-four in number, twelve from each university. They must be resident fellows of colleges during the whole time they hold the office; to which they are appointed by the bishop of London, as dean of his majesty's chapel.

Stereotype Printing invented, 1725. Ged, a Scotsman, discovered the principle of stereotyping; but as the common printers opposed him virulently, the art was neglected for half a century; when Mr. Tilloch revived it in England, Didot at Paris, and lord Stanhope brought it to perfection. It is effected by taking an impression of each page of type, when set in order by the compositor, in plaster of Paris: the plaster-mould thus formed is baked

hard, and then dipped into liquid type-metal, so that a fac-simile of each page of printer's type is produced; and this imitative page, which is, of course, one fixed mass, is capable of giving off impressions with ink, in the same manner as the moveable type of the printer. By this process, a large number of plates may be struck from one compositor's work, and any quantity of copies of a work printed in a brief space of time: books, therefore, of universal demand, such as bibles, are always stereotyped, and can, from the saving of labour in the printing-office, be sold at a lower rate than any others. *Stereos* means in Greek *immoveable*.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1703, Achmet III. *Popes*. 1700, Clement XI.; 1721, Innocent XIII.; 1724, Benedict XIII. *France*. 1643, Louis XIV.; 1715, Louis XV. *Russia*. 1696, Peter I.; 1725, Catherine I.; 1727, Peter II. *Sweden*. 1697, Charles XII.; 1719, Ulrica-Eleonora; 1720, Frederick of Hesse-Cassel. *Denmark and Norway*. 1699, Frederick IV. *Portugal*. 1705, John V. *Spain*. 1700, Philip V.; 1724, Louis I. and Philip V. *Germany*. 1711, Charles VI. *Poland*. 1609, Frederick Augustus. *Prussia*. 1713, Frederick William I.

SECTION II.

GEORGE II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1727 TO 1760—33 YEARS.

Political History. George II. was born at Hanover 1683, and like his father, constantly preferred the interests of his German state to those of his more important inheritance. He had married, 1704, Caroline, princess of Brandenburg-Anspach, an amiable woman, who displayed great dignity as queen of England, and was always the warm patron of the learned, and the instant friend of the needy. She died 1737, aged fifty-four, universally regretted. By her the king had eight children; the most distinguished of whom were *Frederick*, prince of Wales, who died before his father, and whose son George III. succeeded to the throne; *William*, duke of Cumberland, a bachelor, and the conqueror of the Pretender; and *Louisa*, queen of Frede-

rick V. of Denmark. George II. was short and well shapen, with very prominent eyes, a high nose, and a fair complexion. He was prone to anger, but easily appeased; otherwise he was moderate and humane; in his mode of living, temperate and regular. He was fond of pomp and military parade, and personally brave. In fact he loved war as a soldier, and corresponded on the subject with some of the greatest military characters of the continent. He was popular throughout his reign; and was very generally and sincerely regretted at his decease.

Political History. George II. succeeded at the mature age of forty-five, when the two parties, into which the nation had so long been divided, had changed their names from whig and tory to the *court* and *country* parties. Throughout the greatest portion of this reign there seem to have been two grand objects of controversy, namely, the national debt (thirty millions), and the number of forces to be kept in pay. The court party constantly found excuses, notwithstanding a profound and continued peace, to increase the one and not diminish the other, and were constantly victorious. The next thing worthy of notice is the charitable corporation, whereby a society of men, under the plea of raising a capital of 23,000*l.*, to lend money at legal interest to the poor upon small pledges, increased that capital to 600,000*l.*, and then decamped with the money. No less than six members of parliament, besides many persons of higher rank, were found to be concerned in this act of fraud; and it was long before the public forgot the circumstance. This happened in 1731; and in 1732 Walpole formed a scheme to fix a general excise, by commencing with tobacco, which was to pay no customs on importation, but fourpence per pound when sold out of the government warehouses, where it was ordered to be placed on arrival. So violent was the popular ferment, that the commons threw out the bill, alarmed at the threats of the crowds which daily beset the house; the minister was burned in effigy; and a new parliament called. Walpole having succeeded, in this new assembly, in his design to drive out the country party, passed several useful laws to gain popularity, and then declared war with Spain, 1739.

Ever since the treaty of Utrecht, the Spaniards had insulted the commerce of England; and as a right of cutting logwood in the bay of Campeachy in South America, gave the British frequent opportunities of pushing in contraband commodities upon that continent, the Spaniards, in revenge, declared no more logwood should be cut. Hostilities thereupon commencing, the British admiral Vernon destroyed the fortifications of Porto Bello; while Anson, after a voyage of three years' duration, in which he circumnavigated the globe, returned laden with the spoils of a Spanish galleon and other prizes, valued at 600,000*l.*, though he lost a complete fleet in the stormy South Seas. But the attack of the English on Carthagea failed, and after great loss, they re-embarked their troops, and returned home, 1741; whereupon the popular indignation forced Walpole to resign, and he was removed to the house of peers as earl of Orford.

No less than 407 British ships having been captured in the contest with Spain, the nation became disgusted with naval affairs; and at once entered into the quarrels that were beginning on the continent of Europe. Augustus, king of Poland, had died, and Stanislaus, who had been nominated by Charles XII., had been supported by the French in his attempt upon the throne, but was put down by the Austrians and Russians. The emperor of Germany dying in 1740, the French, regardless of treaties, particularly of the Pragmatic Sanction, caused the elector of Bavaria to be crowned emperor; and the Prussians aided them on this occasion. England, however, stood forth in Maria Theresa's defence, and Holland and Russia soon becoming her allies, the nominal emperor was obliged to fly; and, stripped even of Bavaria, his inherit-

ance, he passed henceforward a life of obscurity at Frankfort. Meanwhile the English and Hanoverians were trying to effect a junction with Maria Theresa's general, prince Charles of Lorraine, in order to crush the French at a blow. The earl of Stair and king George II. himself were in command ; but near the village of Dettingen, the French contrived to surround them, and, had they acted without precipitation, would have made the British army, king and all, prisoners. Their impetuosity, however, saved Britain this disgrace ; and they were ultimately driven back across the Mayne, with a loss of 500 men ; a victory which was long celebrated in England, and to commemorate which the well-known *Te Deum* of Handel was composed.

The French were about to invade England after this defeat, with the Pretender at their head, when admiral Norris dispersed their fleet. They, however, appeared with 120,000 men in the Netherlands, under count Saxe ; and the allies, amongst whom were the English under the duke of Cumberland, were defeated by them at the bloody battle of Fontenoy, 1744, with the loss of 12,000 men. Immediately after this disaster, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, son of the Pretender prince James, landed in Scotland with a few followers, and a ship-load of arms, 1745 ; and being joined by the Highlanders of certain clans, entered Edinburgh, and routed Sir John Cope and the English forces at Preston-pans. Had the prince marched at once into England, the consequences would probably have been serious to the party in power ; but he remained in Edinburgh, waiting for succours which had been promised him, but which never arrived ; so that the season of action was lost. Though general Wade could not get his 6000 Dutch troops to act against Charles Edward, the duke of Cumberland soon arrived from Flanders with a detachment of well-disciplined dragoons and infantry ; and Charles Edward, having been compelled by the quarrels amongst his Highland generals, to retreat to Edinburgh, after advancing within 100 miles of London, found himself opposed by 14,000 well-supplied and veteran soldiers. An engagement ensued at Culloden, near Inverness, in which the Pretender's troops were defeated with great slaughter, and himself compelled to fly. The duke of Cumberland behaved on this occasion with the greatest cruelty, refusing quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceless ; and many were slain who had only been spectators of the combat, the soldiers themselves doing the office of the common executioner. Thirty-seven officers, adherents of the Pretender, were executed as traitors at Kennington-common, Carlisle, and York, respectively ; and the earl of Kilmarnock, lord Balmerino, and lord Lovat, were put to death with the usual solemn ceremonial. The Highlanders of Scotland were commanded henceforth to wear clothes of the common fashion, laying aside their military dress and arms ; and the power of their chieftains was wholly destroyed, every man being granted a participation in the common liberty, to the abolition of clanship for ever. Prince Charles Edward, meanwhile, with a price of 30,000*l.* upon his head, wandered six months in the frightful wilds of Glengary ; and, like his great-uncle, Charles II., was eventually, by the aid of a few faithful adherents, put safely on shore in France. The duke of Cumberland returned after the battle of Culloden to Flanders, to take the command of an army to which he was by no means equal. The French recovered every fortress which the duke of Marlborough had taken ; and had not admirals Anson, Warren, and Hawke made some captures of French ships, the English affairs would have been in a desperate state. At length Louis, tired of the contest, proposed a peace ; and a treaty was accordingly concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1749.

In 1751 died Frederick, prince of Wales, beloved by the majority for his good nature, and his opposition to the ministry. So much had he displeased his royal parent on the latter account, that they seldom met amicably ; and

when, on a former occasion, prince Frederick had offended the king in a family matter, a public order was issued to the effect, that all who visited the prince would be refused admission at court.

War again broke out with France 1756, on account of the opposition of that power to the introduction of British settlers in Nova Scotia; a territory which the English were anxious to possess, in order the better to defend their American colonies and fishery. Although the British arms met with little success in Nova Scotia, many French ships were taken; and nothing was then talked of but an invasion of England. Fifty thousand men were brought down to the French shores, to embark in flat-bottomed boats for the opposite coasts: but, from some undefined cause, the attempt was laid aside for an attack on Minorca. Admiral Byng was instantly despatched to raise the siege; but sailing away without effecting his object, he was tried on his return to England, and shot; though he protested his innocence as to any treacherous intent. The British ministry then entered into alliance with the king of Prussia, who promised to protect Hanover from the French; and thus England and Prussia found themselves opposed alone to the allied powers of France, Russia, Austria, and Sweden.

The two powers, however, desperate as was their case, succeeded against their enemies. By the spirited conduct of colonel Clive, who had recently been a clerk of the East India company, all the French towns and factories on the Coromandel coast in India, except Pondicherri, were seized by the English; while, in 1759, the French possessions in North America fell rapidly before the British arms, general Wolfe at length entering Quebec as a conqueror, and all Canada surrendering to his troops. So did France, as if by magic influence, lose her hold upon her chief territories both in the East and West; added to which, the vigorous measures of the new ministry under Mr. Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, seemed to threaten the very annihilation of her power. Though Hanover had fallen before the French, by the capitulation of Closter-Seven, a reinforcement from England enabled the king of Prussia to proceed against the Russians; while 7000 English, under duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, defeated 80,000 French at Minden, 1759. The British army in Germany was soon after augmented to 30,000, and continued opposed to the French with various success, till they retired in October 1760 into winter-quarters.

This measure had no sooner been taken, than news arrived of the death of George II. He had risen at his usual hour, October 25, and observed to the lord in waiting, that, as the weather was fine, he would walk before breakfast in the gardens of Kensington, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone in his room, he was heard to fall with violence upon the floor. His attendants hurried into the apartment, and lifted him upon his bed; when he desired with a faint voice that the princess Amelia might be sent for: but before she could reach his chamber, he had expired. He was in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and was buried in Westminster-abbey.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Charitable Corporations Fraud, 1731, as in the history.

The Porteous Riot, 1736. The Scottish people, unaccustomed to imposts, and regarding them as an unjust aggression upon their ancient liberties, made no scruple to elude them by smuggling, whenever it was possible to

do so, throughout the reigns of the first and second George. In one instance, however, the revenue officers had succeeded in detecting Wilson, a baker in the county of Fife, and in ruining him by the fines levied upon him for his practices. This man, while infuriated by his losses, happening to hear that

the collector of the customs at Kirkcaldy was at a house in a neighbouring village, with a large sum of government-money in his possession, attacked him with three associates, and took 200*l.* from his person ; but, together with his chief accomplice, Robertson, he was apprehended with the booty in his pockets, and condemned to death. It was customary for such as had received sentence of death, to attend divine service in the Tolbooth church on the Sunday previous to the day of execution ; and thither the two culprits were accordingly conveyed, guarded by four soldiers. Scarcely were the parties seated, when Wilson suddenly seized two of the guards in his arms, and calling out, ‘ Geordie, do for your life ! ’ snatched hold of a third by the coat-collar with his teeth ; on which Robertson, tripping up the fourth, sprung over the seats with incredible agility, and got clear off. On the following Wednesday, Wilson was carried to the Grass-market, and executed. The crowd assembled was immense ; but all was quiet till the executioner ascended the ladder to cut down the body ; when he was saluted with a volley of stones, many of which struck and injured the town-guard, under the command of captain Porteous. This person, enraged at what he considered an insult to his authority, ordered his men to fire, himself, it is said, setting the example, without either reading the riot-act, or consulting the magistrates ; by which four of the spectators were killed, and eleven severely wounded. As the magistrates were intimidated by the threats of the multitude, they were compelled to bring Porteous to trial, as the sole author of so many deaths ; when, being found guilty, he was sentenced to be hanged on the spot where Wilson had suffered. A reprieve, however, arrived from London at the hour appointed for execution ; and the consequence was a most unexampled riot in Edinburgh. After a night’s labour, the Tolbooth, or Newgate, was broken open, the prisoners set loose, and Porteous, who was celebrating his deli-

very with a party of friends, seized, and carried by the people to instant death. Unable to obtain the usual apparatus, the mob hung him on a dyer’s beam, and then quietly dispersed. When queen Caroline, who, in the absence of her consort on the continent, had sent down the reprieve, heard of the manner in which it had been disregarded, she, in the height of her displeasure, exclaimed in the midst of the council, ‘ that sooner than submit to such an insult, she would make Scotland a hunting-field.’ ‘ In that case, Madam,’ returned John, duke of Argyle, with a profound bow, ‘ I will take leave of your majesty, and go down to my own country to get my hounds ready.’ Milder courses, however, were recommended, and adopted ; but it is singular that, although many were examined on suspicion of having been concerned in the riot, and the investigation extended over years, not a single individual was ultimately convicted.

Escape of Prince Charles Edward, 1746. On quitting Culloden, the prince was conveyed to Long island, where he lay for some time concealed ; but some troops being in pursuit of him thither, Miss Flora Macdonald, a young lady animated by the sacred principle of loyalty, offered to accompany him in an open boat to Skye, though the coast they were to quit was guarded by ships. Charles, dressing himself in woman’s clothes, and taking the name of Betty Bourke, consented to become her Irish waiting-servant ; and they crossed, after several shots had been fired to bring them to, from Long island to the seat of Sir Alexander Macdonald at Mugatort. Here lady Macdonald settled that he should remain for a few hours, on a hill near the house ; while her relative, Miss Flora, dined with her. At lady Margaret’s table dined also an officer of the duke of Cumberland’s army, stationed here with a party of soldiers to watch for the prince, should he land in Skye ; and she often, after the escape of the latter, laughed at the officer in question, for her skill in deceiving

him. The repast being over, Flora on horseback, followed by her Irish servant, Kingsburgh, a respectable laird, and the servant of the latter, all on foot, proceeded to Kingsburgh's house; and in their way thither, having to cross a brook, Charles, that his clothes might not get wet, held them up a great deal higher than ladies are accustomed to do; and being cautioned as to this point, he, on passing a second rivulet, did not hold them up at all, but let them float upon the water, which some women on the spot observing, said 'she looked more like a man than a woman, and perhaps it was the prince.' The prince slept at Kingsburgh's more soundly and for a longer time than he had been able for many nights to do; and the next day proceeded to Portree, as before, after Kingsburgh had given him a new pair of shoes, his old ones being terribly worn. 'These,' observed the old laird, 'I will keep until you are safely settled at St. James's.' Charles smiled and said, 'Be as good as your word!' Kingsburgh kept them as long as he lived; and they were bought at his decease, by a zealous Jacobite, for twenty guineas. His wife, after the prince had departed, folded up the sheets in which he had slept, never allowed them to be washed more, and was buried in them as a winding-sheet.

On the road to Portree, Charles, fearing detection on account of his awkwardness, changed his petticoats for a tartan short coat and waistcoat, with philibeg, and short hose, a plaid, wig, and bonnet. At Portree, Miss Flora quitted the prince; and the Macleods, who had fought for him and been wounded at Culloden, conveyed him thence to their island of Rasay. As the place had been wholly laid waste by the English soldiery, they hastily constructed a but for the wanderer; and he pleased the Highlanders during his first meal, by preferring oaten bread and whiskey to wheaten bread and brandy; declaring he would take only the former staple

commodities of the land of his fathers so long as they lasted to him. Young Rasay had secretly taken a kid from his own flock, and now dressed it for supper; and the attendants keeping watch whilst Charles slept, they observed him start frequently, and now and then exclaim in a murmuring tone, 'Oh God! poor Scotland!' As there was difficulty in ascertaining at Rasay whether a French ship could be found, the whole party returned to Skye, where Charles had now a cow-house for his residence. It was here that the prince desired Malcolm Macleod to walk with him a little way from the house; when he opened his mind, saying, 'I deliver myself to you. Conduct me forthwith to the laird of M'Kinnon's country.' Malcolm objected that it was dangerous, as so many parties of soldiers were in motion. He answered, 'There is nothing now to be done without danger.' He then said, that Malcolm must be the master, and he the servant; so he took the bag in which his linen was put up, and carried it on his shoulder; and observing that his waistcoat, which was of scarlet tartan with a gold twist button, was finer than Malcolm's, he put on Malcolm's waistcoat, and gave him his. Malcolm, though an excellent walker, found himself excelled by the prince, who told him he should not much mind the parties that were looking for him, were he once but a musket-shot from them; but that he was somewhat afraid of the Highlanders who were against him, and who, though they would not betray him to his enemies, would not mind assassinating him. As they proceeded through the mountains, taking many a circuit to avoid houses, Malcolm, to try his resolution, asked him what they should do, should they fall in with a party of soldiers. He answered, 'Fight to be sure!' Having asked Malcolm if he should be known in his present dress, and Malcolm having replied he would, he said, 'Then I'll blacken my face with powder. That,' said Malcolm, 'would dis-

cover you at once.' 'Then,' said he, 'I must be put in the greatest dishabille.' So he pulled off his wig, tied a handkerchief round his head, and put his nightcap over it, tore the ruffles from his shirt, took the buckles out of his shoes, and made Malcolm fasten them with strings; but still Malcolm thought he would be known. 'I have so odd a face, said he, that no man ever saw me but he would know me again.' He seemed unwilling to give credit to the horrid narrative of men being massacred in cold blood, after victory had declared for the army commanded by the duke of Cumberland. He could not allow himself to think that a general could be so barbarous.

When they were near M'Kinnon's house (in Skye), they met a man named Ross, who had been a private soldier in the Highland army. He fixed his eyes steadily on the prince, then clapped his hands and exclaimed, 'Alas! is this the case?' Finding that there was now a discovery, Malcolm asked, 'What's to be done?' 'Swear him to secrecy,' answered prince Charles. Upon which Malcolm drew his dirk, and on the naked blade made him swear that he would say nothing of having seen the prince, till his escape should be made public. Malcolm's sister, whose house they reached pretty early in the morning, asked him who that was with him? He said it was one Louis Caw from Crieff, who being a fugitive like himself, he had engaged him as his servant; but that he had fallen sick. Her husband was gone a little way from home; but was expected every minute to return. She put for her brother a plentiful Highland breakfast. Prince Charles acted the servant well, sitting at a respectful distance, with his bonnet off. Malcolm then said to him, 'Mr. Caw you have as much need of this as I have; there is enough for us both: you had better draw near and share with me!' Upon which he rose, made a profound bow, sat down at table, and eat very heartily. After this there came an old

woman, who, according to ancient hospitality, brought warm water, and washed Malcolm's feet. He desired her to wash the feet of the poor man who attended him. She at first seemed averse to this, thinking him beneath her, and in the periphrastic language of the Highlanders, said warmly, 'Though I washed your father's son's feet, why should I wash his father's son's feet?' She was, however, persuaded to do it. They then went to bed, and slept for some time; and when Malcolm awoke, he was told that Mr. John M'Kinnon, his brother-in-law, was in sight. He sprang out to talk to him before he should see prince Charles. After saluting him, Malcolm, pointing to the sea, said, 'What, John, if the prince should be prisoner on board one of those tenders?' 'God forbid!' replied John. 'What if we had him here?' said Malcolm. 'I wish we had,' answered John, 'we should take care of him.' 'Well, John,' said Malcolm, 'he is in your house.' John, in a transport of joy, wanted to run directly in, and pay his obeisance; but Malcolm stopped him, saying, 'Now is your time to behave well, and do nothing that can discover him.' John composed himself, and having sent away all his servants upon different errands, was introduced into the presence of his guest, and was then desired to go and get ready a boat lying near his house, which, though but a small leaky one, they resolved to take, rather than go to the laird of M'Kinnon. John Mac Kinnon, however, thought otherwise; and upon his return, told them that his chief and lady M'Kinnon were coming in the laird's boat. Prince Charles said to his trusty Malcolm, 'I am sorry for this, but must make the best of it.' M'Kinnon then walked up from the shore, and did homage to the prince, while his lady waited in a cave, to which they all afterwards repaired, and were entertained with cold meat and wine.

Mr. Malcolm Macleod being now superseded by the laird of M'Kin-

non, desired leave to return to Rasay, whereon the prince bade him a cordial adieu, and insisted on his accepting a silver stock-buckle, and ten guineas from his purse, though, as Malcolm said, it did not appear to contain above forty. Malcolm begged to be excused, saying that he had a few guineas at his service; but Charles answered, 'You will have need of money; and I shall get enough when I come upon the mainland.' The laird of M'Kinnon then conveyed the prince to the opposite coast of Knoidart. In this manner did the descendant of the unfortunate James rove about the country of his fathers; and it was not until five months from this period, that a privateer of St. Maloes, hired by his friends, arrived in Lochranach, in which he embarked in the most wretched attire. He was clad in a short coat of black frieze, threadbare; over which was a common Highland plaid, girt round him by a belt, from which hung a pistol and dagger. He had not been shifted for many weeks; his eyes were hollow, his visage wan, and his constitution greatly impaired by famine and fatigue. He was accompanied by Cameron of Lochiel, and other exiles, who had shared all his calamities after his quitting Skye. They set sail for France; and after having been chased by two English men-of-war, arrived in safety at Roseau, near Morlaix, in Bretagne. The prince never again revisited Britain, and died at Florence 1788. (See *Cardinal York*.)

Execution of Eugene Aram, 1759. As Mr. Bulwer has given by his popular novel a sort of historical impress to this event, it must be recorded that Aram was a market-gardener's son of Newly, Yorkshire; and that, having natural abilities, he obtained by his own labour enough Greek and Latin to set up a school at Knaresborough. About 1745 one Daniel Clarke, a shoemaker of that place, was suddenly missing under suspicious circumstances; but as his affairs were known to be in a deranged state, he was generally supposed to have absconded from

his creditors, till full thirteen years afterwards, when an imprudent expression, dropped by one Richard Houseman, respecting a skeleton then discovered in a cavern called St. Robert's cave, caused him to be taken into custody, as one concerned in the murder of Clarke. From Houseman's confession, an order was issued for the apprehension also of Aram, who had long since quitted his native county, and been usher in various schools; in which occupation he had acquired a knowledge of the oriental languages, and evinced some taste as a poet: In 1758 he was lodged in York castle, on the charge above mentioned, brought to trial on the 3d of August, 1759, and, notwithstanding one of the most eloquent, argumentative, and pathetic defences ever known, fully convicted on the testimony of Houseman, corroborated by strong circumstantial evidence. Aram eventually acknowledged his guilt; but on being summoned to execution, it was discovered that he had contrived to wound the veins of his arm in two places with his razor; life, however, was not extinct, and being conveyed in a state of stupor to the gallows, he underwent the sentence of the law, and was afterwards gibbeted in Knaresborough forest. His trial produced at the moment, a sensation fully equal to that of Thurtell in later times.

Eddystone Lighthouse completed, 1759. The Eddystone rocks are situated twelve miles and a half off the Devonshire coast; and a lighthouse was first erected on them by Mr. Winstanley, 1696, in consequence of the terrible wrecks they had recently occasioned. The difficulties of the undertaking were many, and the dangers not less; for the rocks are surrounded by a deep and troubled ocean, which covers the greater part of them; and whenever it blows hard, rolls over them with resistless fury. The light was put up in 1698; and in November, 1703, the fabric wanting some repairs, Mr. Winstanley went down to Plymouth to superintend the performance of them. The opinion of the common

people at this period was, that the building would not be of long duration; but Mr. Winstanley held different sentiments, and when the presumed danger was mentioned to him previously to his going off to the rocks, he replied, 'I am so well assured of the strength of it, that I should only wish to be there in the greatest storm that ever blew under the face of the heavens.' In this he was too soon gratified; for while he was in the lighthouse, a dreadful storm began, which raged most violently on the night of the 26th of November, 1703; and on the ensuing morning not a vestige of the structure was to be seen.

The building had not been long destroyed, before a homeward bound Virginian went to pieces on the rocks; a calamity which induced benevolent persons to hasten the restoration of the Eddystone. A captain Lovett, therefore, completed a second one in 1709: and during its construction, Louis XIV. being at war with England, a French privateer made prisoners of the men at work upon it, and carried them, together with their tools, to France. The transaction having reached the ears of Louis, he most nobly ordered them to be released, and the captors to be put in their place; declaring that, 'though at war with England, he was not at war with mankind.' He even sent back the men to their work with presents, observing, 'that the lighthouse was of service to all nations having occasion to navigate the channel that divides France from England.'

This building was destroyed by fire 1755, and the three light-keepers were with difficulty saved by boats. One of these, Henry Hall, ninety-four years of age, told the surgeon who attended him, that while looking up the building (as the fire began at the top) a quantity of molten lead had suddenly poured down upon him, some of which had gone down his throat. The thing seemed incredible to Dr. Spry; but on the eleventh day, the man dying suddenly in great agony, his body was opened, and there was found in the stomach a solid piece of lead, of a flat oval form, weighing seven ounces.

Notwithstanding this second failure, Mr. Smeaton, the engineer, was appointed to commence a lighthouse of stone on the rocks, 1756; and in October 1759 a happy period was put to the undertaking, without loss of life or limb to any one concerned in it. It now only remained to wait for a storm, to try the solidity of the edifice. The hard weather of 1759, 1760, 1761, appeared to make no impression upon it. The year 1762 was ushered in by a tempest of the greatest violence, the rage of which was such, that one of those who had been used to foretell its downfall, was heard to say, 'if the Eddystone be now standing, it will stand for ever!' From that time, any doubt of the strength and solidity of the building has been so entirely out of men's minds, that whatever storms have happened since, no inquiry has ever been made concerning it.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Law's Projects, 1716. John Law, a Scotsman of bad character, who had been condemned to death for manslaughter, after having proposed to the British parliament various wild plans of finance, was permitted by the regent of France to found a bank at Paris, 1716, which became the national depository; and to this were added the interests of the Mississippi company. The hopes of immense gain gradually brought all the specie of the kingdom

under his control; and in 1719 his paper was calculated to be worth eighty times the circulating coin of the nation. Like the South Sea scheme in England, the consequences were most fatal. On a sudden, the bank was incapable of answering the demands made upon it, and thousands of families were without homes and without bread. It was with difficulty that the regent quelled the tumults that were every where commencing. Law

escaped, and died some time after at Venice; but years passed away before France recovered from the blow.

Revolt of Corsica. This island having declared itself independent of Genoa 1729, an adventurer, calling himself Theodore, baron of Neuhof, by birth a Frenchman, lauded from a ship laden with warlike stores, 1736, and offered to aid the inhabitants in their conflicts with their former masters. The French, however, taking part with the Genoese, Theodore, who had been proclaimed king of Corsica, again became a wanderer, and ultimately died in want in London, 1756. The British, in 1745, sent a fleet in aid of the islanders, but recalled it, in consequence of the want of union amongst the leading Corsicans; and though, by the efforts of Paoli, the Genoese were at length driven out, the French obtained a cession of the isle to their nation by Genoa, 1768, and completely subdued it in the following year.

Accession of Elizabeth of Russia.

In 1741 this ambitious and licentious woman dethroned her relative Iwan V., a minor, and took the throne of her father, Peter the Great. Although she had declared that no capital punishment should be inflicted during her reign, she gave a strong example of cruelty, in condemning two ladies of her court, women of beauty and rank, to receive fifty strokes of the knout in the open square at St. Petersburg, to have their tongues cut out, and to be banished to Siberia,—for divulging her secret amours. After rejecting as suitors Louis XV., Lewis of Brunswick, and even Kouli Khan, she died, aged fifty-two, 1761.

Earthquake at Lima. This city of South America was destroyed by a terrible earthquake 1746; but it is a visitation of such frequent occurrence, that the people think they do enough by rebuilding, after each calamity, on the ground-floor only; so that the houses are low. They are, however, capacious and handsome; being usually of stone, with the roofs partially covered with reeds or beautiful cloths, on which the inhabitants sit to enjoy the refreshing

breezes in a climate where it never rains. All the churches and convents of Lima are extremely rich; and many images of the saints are of massive gold, adorned with jewels. So wealthy was the city in 1672, that when the viceroy arrived from Spain, the inhabitants actually paved the streets through which he made his public entry with ingots of silver.

The Prince of Orange was made Stadtholder, 1747, by the title of William IV. The office had been vacant from 1702; but it has since regularly descended in the line of the Orange family, though the title is now changed to that of king.

The Earthquake at Lisbon, 1755.

As one of these awful visitations differs little from another, excepting in the amount of injury to life and property, a succinct narrative of the very dreadful calamity in question, from the pen of an eyewitness, will afford as correct a notion as can be desired of the nature of such phenomena. Mr. Braddock thus writes to Dr. Sandby, chancellor of the diocese of Norwich. 'It was on the morning of November 1, between the hours of nine and ten, that I was set down in my apartment, when the papers and table I was writing on began to tremble with a gentle motion, which surprised me, as I could not perceive a breath of wind stirring. Whilst reflecting what this could be owing to, the whole house began to shake from the very foundation; which at first I imputed to the rattling of several coaches in the main street; but on hearkening more attentively, I was undeceived, and heard a strange frightful kind of noise under ground, resembling the rumbling of thunder. Upon this I threw down my pen, remaining in suspense, whether I should stay in the apartment, or run into the street, as the danger in both places seemed equal; but I was roused from my dream by a most horrid crash, as if every edifice in the city had tumbled down at once. The house I was in shook with such violence, that the upper stairs immediately fell; and in my apartment (which was on the first

floor) every thing was thrown out of its place. The walls continued rocking to and fro, opening in several places; large stones fell on every side; and the ends of the rafters started out. To add to this terrifying scene, the sky became so gloomy, that I could for a time distinguish no particular object; but as soon as the gloom had begun to disperse, I perceived in my room a woman sitting on the floor, with an infant in her arms, all covered with dust, pale, and trembling. I asked how she got hither; but her consternation was so great, that she could give me no account of herself. The poor creature complained of being choked, and begged for God's sake I would procure her a little drink; but I told her she must not now think of quenching her thirst, but of saving her life, as, if a second shock should come, the house would certainly bury us both. We made directly to that end of the street which opens to the Tagus; but finding the passage blocked up by the fallen houses, I turned back to the other side. Here, having helped the woman over a vast heap of ruins, I desired her, as there was a part I could not climb over without the assistance of my hands, to let go her hold, which she did, remaining two or three feet behind me; at which instant there fell a vast stone from a tottering wall, and crushed both her and her child to death. So dismal a spectacle at any other time would have affected me most deeply; but the dread I was in of sharing the same fate, and the many instances of the same kind which presented themselves all around, were too shocking to make me dwell a moment on this single object.

‘I had now a long narrow street to pass, with the houses on each side four or five stories high, all very old, the greater part already thrown down, or threatening the passengers with inevitable death at every step, numbers of whom lay killed before me, or (what I thought far more deplorable) so bruised and wounded, that they could not stir. Having at length got clear of this horrid

passage, I found myself unhurt in the large open space before St. Paul's church, which had been thrown down a few minutes before, and had buried a great part of the congregation. Here I stood some time, considering what I should do; and not thinking myself safe, came to the resolution of climbing over the ruins of the west end of the church, to get to the river-side, that I might be removed as far as possible from the tottering houses, in case of a second shock. This, with some difficulty, I accomplished; and here I found a prodigious concourse of people, of both sexes, and of all ranks and conditions; among whom I observed some of the principal canons of the patriarchal church, in their purple robes and rochets; ladies half-dressed, and some without shoes: all these, whom their mutual dangers had assembled, were on their knees in prayer, with the terrors of death in their countenances, every one striking his breast and crying out incessantly, *Misericordia Deus!*

‘In the midst of our devotions, a second shock came on, little less violent than the former, and completed the ruin of the devoted city. You may judge of the force of this shock, when I inform you that I could scarcely keep on my knees; and it was attended with some circumstances still more dreadful than the first. On a sudden, I heard a general outcry, ‘The sea is coming in; we shall all be lost!’ and turning my eyes to the river, which in that place is nearly four miles broad, I perceived it heaving in a most unaccountable manner; there then appeared a body of water, rising like a mountain, which came on, foaming and roaring, and rushed towards the shore with such impetuosity, that we all ran for our lives. Many were actually swept away, and the rest immersed above their waists in water. I should certainly have been lost, had I not grasped a large beam that lay on the ground, till the water returned to its channel, which it did with equal rapidity. As there now appeared as much danger from the sea as from the land, I

returned to the area of St. Paul's : and as I stood here, I observed the ships tumbling and tossing about, as in a violent storm ; some were whirled round with incredible swiftness, and several large boats were turned keel upwards ; and all this without any wind. It was at this moment that the fine new marble quay was entirely swallowed up, with all on it who had fled thither for safety ; while a number of small vessels anchored near it (all likewise full of people) were swallowed up, as in a whirlpool, and never more appeared !

I had not long been in the area of St. Paul's, when I felt the third shock : the sea rushed in again, and retired with the same rapidity, and I remained up to my knees in water, though I had got upon a small eminence. I now resolved to go to the Mint, which being a low and strong building, had received no considerable damage. The guard of soldiers had deserted their commanding officer, a nobleman's son, about eighteen years of age, whom I found standing at the gate. Having expressed my admiration that one so young should have the courage to keep his post, he replied that, though he were sure the earth would open and swallow him up, he scorned to think of flying from his duty. In short, it was owing to the magnanimity of this youth that the Mint, which had upwards of two millions of money in it, was not robbed. I believe I might remain in conversation with him nearly five hours ; and though I was now grown faint from the constant fatigue I had undergone, not yet having broken my fast, yet this had not so much effect upon me, but that I could feel great anxiety to ascertain the condition of a particular friend, with whom I was to have dined that day, and who, lodging at the top of a very high house in the heart of the city, could not but be in the utmost danger. I took leave, therefore, of the brave officer, and passed before the Irish convent of Corpo Santo, which had been thrown down, and had buried a great number

of persons who were at mass. The rest of the community were standing in the area, looking with dejected countenances towards the ruins. From this place I took my way to the spot where the Opera-house had stood.

'The new scenes of horror I now witnessed exceed all description. I did not meet any one who was not bewailing the death of relations and friends, or the loss of all his substance. I could hardly take a step without treading on the dead or the dying. In some places lay coaches, with their masters, horses, and riders, crushed in pieces ; here, mothers with infants in their arms ; there, ladies richly dressed, priests, friars, gentlemen, mechanics, either in the same condition, or just expiring ; some had their backs or thighs broken, others vast stones on their breasts ; some lay almost buried in the rubbish, and cried out in vain to the passengers for succour. Finding that the house of which I was in search was in ruins, I made my way in about an hour to a public-house, kept by one Morley, near the English burying-ground. As soon as it grew dark, a spectacle presented itself little less shocking than those already described : the whole city was in a blaze ! and thus it continued burning for six days together, without the least attempt being made to quench the fire.

'The loss of human life was more afflicting than that of palaces, churches, convents, and private houses ; and prodigious numbers perished, from the first shock having happened when the grand body of the inhabitants were assembled at their devotions. In the convent of St. Francis, having three hundred friars, the roof fell down as they were singing in the choir, and buried all except eighteen, together with the numerous congregation below. In that of the Trinity 1500 were killed ; and every other church and chapel suffered in proportion. The total number that perished is estimated, on the lowest calculation, to be 60,000 ; and though the damage in other respects cannot be computed, yet you may form some

notion of it, when I assure you, that this before opulent city is now nothing but a vast heap of ruins ; that the rich and poor are upon a level ; and that thousands of families, which but the day before had been easy in their circumstances, are now scattered about in the fields, wanting every convenience of life, and finding no one able to relieve them.'

The Black-hole Imprisonment, 1756. The ill-conduct of Drake, English governor of Calcutta (who had, amongst other reprehensible acts, unjustly imprisoned a very considerable native merchant), having drawn the resentment of the Indian viceroy upon the British factory, that functionary marched against it in person with a large force, and laid siege to the fort. Drake no sooner witnessed the consequence of his proceedings, than he deserted his post ; and a Mr. Holwell took the command, resolving to defend the place as long as he was able. This opposition of Mr. Holwell still more inflamed the Indian ; who, supposing great treasures to be in the fort, in which the new commander had an interest, pushed on the siege with the greatest vigour. The following is Mr. Holwell's own statement : ' The Suba and his troops were in possession of the fort before six in the evening. At a third interview with him, before seven, he repeated his assurances to me, on the word of a soldier, that no harm should come to us ; and indeed I believe his orders were only general, that we should that night be secured ; and that what followed was the result of revenge in the breasts of the inferior officers (to whose custody we were delivered), for the number of their order killed during the siege. Be this as it may, as soon as it was dark, we were directed to collect ourselves into one body, and sit down quietly under the arcade. About 400 or 500 men, who were drawn up upon the parade, then advanced, and with their muskets presented, ordered us to go into the room, commonly called the Black-hole prison, situated at the end of the barracks.

' I got possession of the window nearest the door, and took Messrs. Cole and Scott with me, they being both wounded. It was now about eight o'clock. Figure to yourself the situation of 146 wretches, exhausted by fatigue and action, crammed together in a room eighteen feet square, and open only to the westward by two windows, strongly barred with iron, from which we could receive scarcely a breath of air, during a sultry night, in the burning climate of India. What must ensue appeared to me in lively and dreadful colours, the instant I cast my eyes around. Many attempts were made to force the door ; but having nothing but our hands to work with, and the door opening inwards, all our endeavours were fruitless. Amongst the guards posted at the window, I observed an old Indian sergeant, who seemed to carry some compassion for us in his countenance. I called him, and pressed him to endeavour to get us separated, half in one place, and half in another ; and told him that he should receive 1000 rupees for this act of tenderness. He withdrew, but in a few minutes returned, and told me it was impossible. I then thought I had been deficient in my offer, and promised him 2000 : he withdrew a second time, but returned soon after, and said it could not be done but by the general's order, and that no one dared to awake him. We had been but a few minutes confined, when every one fell into a perspiration so profuse, that it brought on a raging thirst, which increased in proportion as the body was drained of its moisture. Various expedients were thought of to give more room and air. To obtain the former, it was proposed to put off our clothes ; this being approved by some, in a few minutes every man was stripped but myself and the few about me. Every hat was then put in motion to produce a circulation of air ; and Mr. Baillie next suggested that all should sit on the floor for a while. This expedient was several times put in practice, and each time many of the

poor creatures, who could not immediately recover their legs when the word was given to rise, fell to rise no more; for they were instantly trodden to death.

'Before nine o'clock, every man's thirst grew intolerable, and respiration difficult. Efforts were made again to force the door, but in vain. Insults were used to the guards to provoke them to fire upon us. For my own part I hitherto felt neither pain nor uneasiness, but what resulted from the sufferings of those within. By keeping my face between two of the bars, I obtained air enough to give my lungs easy play, though my perspiration was excessive. At this period, so strong a flavour came from the prison, that I was not able to turn my head that way for more than a few seconds at a time. Every body now, excepting those situated in and near the window, began to grow outrageous, and many delirious. 'Water! water!' became the general cry; and the old sergeant before mentioned taking pity on us, ordered the people to bring some skins of water. This was what I dreaded. I foresaw it would prove the ruin of the small hope left us, and essayed many times to speak to him privately, to forbid its being brought; but the clamour was so loud, it became impossible. The water appeared; but words cannot paint the agitation into which the sight of it threw us. Until it came, I had not myself suffered much from thirst, which instantly grew excessive. We had no means of conveying it into the prison but by hats forced through the bars; and thus myself and Messrs. Cole and Scott supplied the rest as fast as possible. The confusion on a sudden became horrible beyond bearing; and many forcing their passage from the further part of the room, carried down those in their way who had less strength, and trampled them to death.

'From about nine to near eleven I sustained this cruel scene and painful situation, still supplying them with water, though my legs were almost broken with the weight against them. By this time I was nearly squeezed

to death; and my two wounded companions, with Mr. Parker, who had forced himself into the window, were actually killed. For a great while the crowd had preserved respect and regard for me; but now all distinction was lost. My friends Baillie, Law, Buchanan, and others, had for some time been dead at my feet, and were trampled upon by each private soldier, who, by the help of a more robust constitution, could force his way to the window, and hold fast by the bars over me; till at last I became so wedged up, as to be deprived of all motion. Determined now to give up every thing, I called to them, and begged, as the last instance of their regard, that they would remove the pressure upon me, and permit me to retire, and die in quiet. They gave way, and with difficulty I forced a passage to the centre of the prison; where the throng was less by the many dead, and by the numbers who flocked to the windows. Here my poor friend Mr. Eyre came staggering over the dead to me, and, with his usual coolness and good-nature, asked me how I did; but fell and expired, before I had time to make him a reply. I laid myself down on some of the dead behind me, and recommending myself to Providence, had the comfort of thinking my sufferings could have no long duration. My thirst, however, grew insupportable, and the difficulty of breathing much increased. I had not remained in this situation many minutes, when I was seized with a violent pain in my breast, and palpitation of heart, which obliged me to get up again; but still the pain, palpitation, and difficulty of breathing increased. I retained my senses notwithstanding; and called aloud for 'water, for God's sake!' I had been concluded dead; but as soon as the survivors found me amongst them, they still had the respect for me to cry out, 'Give him water!' nor would one of them attempt to touch it, until I had partaken of it. My thirst being increased by the fluid, I determined to drink no more, but kept my mouth moist from time to time by sucking

the perspiration out of my shirt-sleeves, and catching the drops as they fell like heavy rain from my head and face. You can hardly imagine how unhappy I was, if any of them escaped my mouth.

‘By eleven, the greater number of those living were in an outrageous delirium, and the others quite ungovernable; few retaining any calmness, excepting those next the windows. They all now found that water heightened their uneasiness; and ‘Air! air!’ was the general cry. Every insult that could be devised against the guard was resorted to, to provoke them to fire on us. But as all was of no avail, many, whose strength and spirits were quite exhausted, laid themselves down, and expired quietly upon their fellows. A steam now arose from the living and the dead, which for a time most awfully affected us. I need not ask your commiseration when I tell you, that from this time till near two in the morning, I sustained the weight of two heavy men, one a Dutch sergeant, who had taken his seat upon my left shoulder, and the other a black, who occupied my right: all which nothing could have enabled me long to support, but the props and pressure equally sustaining me all around. I at length forced my way from the spot, and saw several in the inner ranks dead, though standing: being kept in that position by the throng. Finding a stupor coming on apace, I placed myself by the side of that gallant old man, the Rev. Mr. Bellamy, who lay dead with his son, the lieutenant, hand in hand, near the southmost wall of the prison; but of what passed from this moment to the time of my liberation, I can give no account.

‘When the day broke, I am told it occurred to Mr. Secretary Cook to make a search for me, in the hope that I might have influence enough to gain a release from this scene of misery. Accordingly I was, by my shirt, discovered under the dead, and brought towards the window I had originally possession of. At this juncture, the

Indian governor, who had received an account of the havoc death had made amongst us, sent one of his sergeants to inquire if the Chief survived. They showed me to him; told him I had the appearance of life remaining; and believed I might recover, if the door was opened very soon. On this an order came immediately for our release, it being then near six in the morning; but as the door turned inwards, and the dead were piled up against it, and covered all the floor, it was impossible to open it by efforts from without. It became, therefore, necessary that the bodies should be removed by the few who were within, who were become so feeble, that the task, though on the condition of life, was not performed without the utmost difficulty; and it was twenty minutes after the order came, before the egress of the survivors could be effected. About a quarter after six, the poor remains of 146 souls, being no more than twenty-three, came out of the black-hole alive; but in a condition which made it very doubtful whether they would see the morning of another day.’ Mr. Holwell and the rest of the survivors were conveyed in a coach drawn by oxen to Patna, where they were soon after released by the Indian governor, at the intercession of his grandmother; and taking boat, they departed for a neighbouring Dutch settlement, whence they set sail for England.

The Seven Years War, 1756 to 1763, in which Prussia united with England against France, Russia, Sweden, and Austria.

The East Indies and Canada made British Colonies, 1759; the former through lord Clive, the latter by general Wolfe.

Cause of Maria Theresa. The most important continental transactions of George’s reign were connected with this matter. By the pragmatic sanction, Maria had been left by her father Charles VI. heir to all his honours: but on her elevation in 1740, Charles of Bavaria seized the throne of Germany, calling himself the emperor

Charles VII. Maria quitted Vienna, and assembling the states of Hungary, threw herself with her infant son in the midst of the deputies, and thus addressed them in Latin: 'Abandoned by my friends, persecuted by my enemies, attacked by my nearest relations, I have no resource left but in your fidelity, courage, and constancy; I intrust into your hands the children of your kings: they depend on you for life and safety.' The appeal was received with applause; and in a short period, she who had just before scarcely a town wherein to give birth with security to her infant, saw Lintz, Passau, and Munich, open their gates to her faithful Hungarians. Prussia being next detached from the alliance against her, by the cession of Silesia and Glatz, she was crowned queen of Bohemia 1743; and soon after saw the king of England in person obtain, in her favour, the victory of Dettingen. Notwithstanding a second dispute with Prussia, Maria had the gratification of appointing her husband, Francis of Lorraine, emperor of Germany, 1745, and in 1748 to make peace at Aix-la-Chapelle with all her enemies. With the title of queen of Hungary, she now devoted herself to the improvement of all the imperial dominions, patronized the arts, established scientific institutions, and formed many splendid hospitals for the brave men who had bled for their country. The king of Prussia again disturbed her repose 1756, by commencing the Seven Years War; but her general, Daun, drove him from Bohemia in so masterly a way, that she established the military order which bears her name, in commemoration of the heroic exploit; and after various success, peace was again concluded 1763. Upon the death of her husband, 1765, she placed the imperial crown on the head of her son, Joseph II., still contenting herself with the dignity of queen of Hungary. Maria deserved and received the appellation of 'mother of her country;' she was, moreover, a benevolent and upright woman in her private relations. She

had the singular felicity, if it deserves that name, of seeing all her children, at her decease in 1780, either placed on thrones, or allied to crowned heads.

Germany under Francis of Lorraine. The events of his reign will be gathered from the preceding article, on the cause of Maria Theresa, his consort. He ruled the empire from 1745 to 1765, when his death took place suddenly, at the age of fifty-eight. He was a great patron of literature, arts, and commerce.

Spain under Philip V. and Ferdinand VI. 1700 to 1759. It has been shown that this first of the Bourbon line of kings with difficulty maintained his authority, on first ascending the throne. The duke de Vendôme, with a French army, put down the last attempt of Charles of Austria, at Villa Viciosa, 1710; and the treaty of Utrecht firmly secured the crown to Philip, 1713. Under the administration of Alberoni, Philip established the Salique law in Spain, and added the Balearic isles and Sardinia to his dominions; but in 1717 the English under Byng defeated his fleet in the Mediterranean. In consequence of melancholy, the king resigned his crown in 1724 to his son Louis, and retired to a monastery; but the latter dying in a few months of smallpox, he resumed the reins of government. In 1733 he joined France against the emperor, Charles VI., his former rival; and he saw his son, Don Carlos, conquer Sicily and Naples, and ascend the throne as Charles III. Philip died 1746, aged sixty-three. *Ferdinand VI.*, his son by Mary of Savoy, was surnamed The Wise, and was a most benevolent prince. Two days in the week he regularly devoted to redressing personally the grievances of his subjects, and no man was then denied access to his presence. At the peace of 1748, he confirmed to his brother Charles (who became his successor in Spain) the crown of the two Sicilies, and obtained for another brother the duchies of Parma and Placentia. Under his paternal government, Spain

again began to lift her head amongst the nations. Industry, so rare a virtue in the peninsula, was encouraged, abuses were reformed, and commerce and plenty were restored by the construction of roads and canals throughout the country; but while thus benefiting his people, the monarch fell a victim to melancholy for the loss of his queen, in his forty-seventh year, 1759.

Portugal under John V. and Joseph, 1706 to 1777. John succeeded his father, Pedro II., and though but seventeen, acted with such prudence and wisdom, that at the treaty of Utrecht, 1715, Portugal was greatly benefited. As John had been steadily opposed to both France and Spain, Joseph steadily adhered to the grand alliance formed against those countries until 1737, when he made a treaty with the Spaniards, which united the two nations until his death in 1750. His son and successor, *Joseph*, prince of Brazil, having commenced with a general reform of abuses, directed, amongst other regulations, that no sentence of the Inquisition should be carried into effect, until its approval by the privy-council. This, as may be imagined, roused the anger of the Jesuits, who, in the spread of infidel opinions amongst their neighbours the French, saw the way made for their easy progress in Portugal. The calamities of the earthquake which destroyed the capital, 1755, and a famine which ensued, had scarcely been surmounted, when an attempt to assassinate the king, whose life was saved by the personal courage of his coachman, 1758, occasioned the expulsion from the kingdom of the Jesuits, who were said to have meditated the plot. Execution followed execution upon this, and the scaffolds and wheels of torture reeked with the noblest blood of Portugal. The Spaniards moreover invaded the country with fury, laid it every where waste, and were marching upon Lisbon with the war-cry of 'Delenda est Carthago!' The interference of England, however, saved the capital, and matters being

arranged with Spain, Joseph was enabled to pass his latter days in comparative peace, dying 1777.

Poland under Augustus Frederick II. Stanislaus Leczinski had ruled from 1705 to 1709, when the ill-fortune of Charles XII. at Pultowa occasioned the restoration of Frederick I. On the death of Frederick, 1734, Louis XV. had laboured to replace Stanislaus, his father-in-law; but as the other powers opposed his elevation, he remained satisfied with the humbler title of duke of Lorraine, and died 1766, in consequence of his night-gown catching fire. Frederick II. was son of the first Frederick; and his last years were embittered by the Prussian invasion of his dominions, when he was compelled to subscribe to very humiliating terms, and to relinquish Saxony. He died 1764, greatly respected for his private virtues.

Conquests of Nadir Shah or Koulî Khan. (Shah and Khan are both synonymous with king.) He was the son of a shepherd of Khorasan, and collecting a number of desperate followers, became a successful plunderer of the caravans. By degrees he had under his command 6000 brave adherents; and the shah of Persia, Thamas, having solicited his aid against the usurper of his throne, Eschref, chief of the Aghwans, he drove out the latter, and in a short time dethroned the shah himself. In 1737 he was invested with sovereign power in Persia; and to cause the nobles to forget his bad title, he conducted them against the Monguls of Hindustan, and after defeating those Tartar Indians to the amount of 300,000, got possession of Delhi, their capital, with its treasures, valued at 145 millions sterling, the greatest amount of money that ever prince was master of. No eastern power could resist the force of Nadir's arms after this; the Usbec Tartars, and countless other tribes submitted; and he returned to Ispahan, sovereign of one of the largest empires in the world. Such astonishing success, however, required more wisdom than

the usurper possessed to consolidate his government ; and when he had irritated his subjects, by forcing upon them the Mahometan faith according to the tenets of Omar, putting to death the priests, and even his own son, for their opposition to his views, he was assassinated, 1747.

France under Louis XV. 1715, to 1774. The question of the regency, during the minority of this great grandson of Louis XIV., only five years of age, was scarcely settled, by the election of the duke of Orleans, when Law's project reduced 100,000 families of France to comparative beggary. The duke released the Jansenists from their imprisonment as his first act, and then prepared to oppose the designs of the celebrated Spanish minister, cardinal Alberoni ; whose influence over every European court but that of England was very extraordinary. A war with Spain was concluded in favour of France, and the obnoxious minister was banished his country, 1720. The abbé Dubois, a man of corrupt principles, was next the minister of the regent, who made him archbishop of Rouen ; and the pope conferred on him a cardinal's hat for his support of the bull *Unigenitus*, which aimed at the suppression of the Jansenists. Death, however, seized Dubois, 1723, and Louis being now of age, took the reins into his own hands, under the guidance of, first the duc de Bourbon, and soon after of cardinal Fleuri, a man of great virtue, and sound judgment. In the contest which ensued respecting Poland, Louis took the part of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, against the house of Saxony, which Russia and Austria supported ; but the treaty of Vienna decided against Stanislaus, who, on being a second time expelled the Polish throne, was satisfied to receive the duchy of Lorraine in lieu. The two Sicilies were by the same treaty given up to Spain. The French in 1740 joined the king of Prussia against Maria Theresa ; and when their army had been beaten by the English at Dettingen, Louis

himself took the command, and was successful at Fontenoi. All parties, however, were now weary of war ; and the husband of Maria Theresa being declared emperor, peace was made 1748 at Aix-la-Chapelle.

Just at this period, the French began to lose ground in India ; when the talents of Mr. (afterwards Lord) Clive shone forth at Arcot, where the English were besieged by their troops. Their American possessions also were gradually wrested from them : and Louis, in revenge, not only determined on seizing Hanover, but on making a descent upon England. Though his fleet took Minorca, and, aided by the Austrians, he forced Frederick of Prussia, the ally of England, to sign the treaty of Closter-Seven, whereby Hanover was ceded to France, yet did Frederick soon after beat the united French and Austrians, 50,000 strong at Rosbach, and, by the aid of prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, recover Hanover after the victory of Minden. The French, foiled in their attempts upon England, ventured to attack Ireland, 1760, under Thurot ; but captain Elliot assailed their ships, and killed their admiral, and in 1763 a treaty of peace between the two countries decided that Canada should belong to England, and Pondicherry in India to France.

During so long a war, the domestic affairs of the French had become greatly disordered. Madame de Pompadour, the king's mistress, had patronized Voltaire, D'Alembert, Diderot, and other impugnors of Christianity, and encouraged them to write against the church, which, supported in France by the jesuits, had frequently attempted to restrain all liberty of conscience. The proximate issue of the contest was the abolition of the jesuits by Louis's minister, the duc de Choiseul ; and the remote one, that horrible revolution which, in the next reign, overturned religion and social order, and deluged the kingdom with blood. The parliament being at length made wholly subservient to the court

party, Louis well and prophetically exclaimed, 'Though the kingdom is old, it will at least last my time : ' and dying soon after, he left his successor

a task, which the most skilful of rulers would hardly have dared to enter upon with any hope of a fortunate termination.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Frederick I. king of Prussia, succeeded his father Frederick elector of Brandenburg, 1713, and was the first Prussian who assumed the regal title, though granted to his father by the emperor of Germany, 1700. To encourage commerce, he invited foreign artisans to settle in his dominions, and created an immense standing army of 60,000 men. His foible was a desire to have his soldiers above the ordinary height; but as these could not always be procured, he composed one regiment of the tallest men he could find. As his officers made no scruple of enlisting gigantic people wherever they could find them, the neighbouring states frequently took umbrage at the loss of their subjects, and a war was often on the eve of breaking out from this ridiculous cause. Frederick, however, was never engaged in any martial enterprise of consequence; but having put his army on the most respectable footing of any in the world, and filled his coffers (for he was prone to save money), he left in the power of his son to perform those exploits which became matter of astonishment to all Europe. He died 1740, aged fifty-two.

Frederick II., called the Great, ascended the throne of Prussia, after his father, 1740. He had been on ill terms with his parent, who had kept him a prisoner at Custrin, where his companion, Kat, was executed before his face. He began his reign by taking Silesia from Maria Theresa; and in the seven-years war, with England for his auxiliary against Germany, France, Russia, and Sweden, he always rose superior to his misfortunes; and gained glorious victories at Rosbach, Lissa, and Zarnhoff, securing Silesia to his dominions by treaty. In 1772 he joined in the unpardonable league which dismembered the kingdom of

Poland. The last years of his life were devoted to the encouragement of science and commerce; and his evenings were spent in the society of men of letters, whom he invited from all countries to his court. Frederick was decidedly the first Prussian ruler who did any thing important for his nation; and Prussia since his time has ranked amongst the most influential European countries. But great as a king, he was an infidel at heart; and by his encouragement of Voltaire and other like men, he greatly aided the spread of opinions which first revolutionized France, and in the issue very nearly annihilated his own state. Frederick died 1786, aged seventy-five.

Frederick, Prince of Wales. It has been mentioned that this prince was much alienated from his father, George II. though a favourite with the people. He married Augusta, daughter of the duke of Saxe-Gotha, by whom he had nine children, the most distinguished of whom were *George III., Caroline Matilda*, the unhappy queen of Christian VII. of Denmark; and *Augusta*, the wife of Charles William Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick, who fell at Jena, and whose son, the duke of Brunswick Oëls, fell at Waterloo. Prince Frederick died, aged forty-four, 1751.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, was grandson of the governor of Madras, who purchased in India a celebrated diamond, which he sold to the regent of France for 135,000*l.* When in the house of commons, he displayed such acuteness, depth of argumentation, and eloquence, as astonished the country, and caused the duchess of Marlborough to leave him 10,000*l.* After being in and out of the ministry during the latter years of George II., he retired with a peerage; but during the American war he occasionally attended the house of lords, to deprecate severe

measures against the colonists. His health had been long declining; and on one of these occasions, 1778, when on the point of replying to the duke of Richmond, he fell insensible into the arms of those around him, and never recovered sufficiently to quit his bed again. Chatham, though not always correct in language, was so irresistible as a speaker, that Walpole, surrounded with power and the unshaken support of a decided majority, never heard his voice without consternation.

Admiral Lord Hawke, who distinguished himself as a brave commander during thirty years; and in 1759, valiantly defeated the French off Belle-isle, for which a pension of 2000*l.* was granted him.

Admiral Lord Anson, being sent with a squadron of five ships to annoy the Spaniards in the southern ocean, was led insensibly round the globe, coming home laden with the spoil of galleons. He landed at Spithead, and his riches were conveyed to London in thirty-two waggons, amidst the shouts of the rejoicing populace; all which booty was divided amongst the brave men who had shared his toils. Some years after, Anson took a French fleet of ten ships; on which occasion the foreign admiral, who was in the *Invincible*, said to him, presenting his sword, and pointing to the next ship, the *Gloire*, '*Monsieur, vous avez vaincu l'Invincible; et la Gloire vous suit.*' Anson had always been so easily imposed upon by designing men, that it was pertinently observed, 'though he had been *round* the world, he had never been in it.' His '*Voyage round the World*' was the well-executed performance of one Benjamin Robins.

General Wolfe was selected by lord Chatham to conduct the war in Canada against the French, and in his attack on Quebec, 1759, was eminently successful for his country. At the moment, however, of victory he received a mortal wound in the wrist: and a second ball passed through his body. Still life departed not; and on a cry

being set up amongst the troops of 'they run!' he hastily inquired, 'Who ran?' and when he found that the French were meant, he exclaimed exultingly, 'Then I die contented!' and thanking God for his mercies, he almost instantly expired, aged only thirty-three.

Admiral Byng, son of lord Torrington, having failed in relieving a fort in Minorca, which was blockaded by the French fleet, was tried and shot at Portsmouth, 1757, because it was supposed he might have forced the enemy into an engagement when he did not. The sentence has been since, though unavailingly, admitted to have been at least unduly rigorous.

James Thomson was born at Ednam in Scotland; and after being tutor to lord Binning, devoted himself to literature, without a profession. His '*Winter*' was first published; and this and his succeeding portions of the '*Seasons*,' together with his tragedy of '*Tancred and Sigismunda*,' occasioned lord chancellor Talbot, Frederick, prince of Wales, and Mr. Lyttleton, to give him sinecure places, which enabled the poet to live in comfort. His '*Seasons*,' for sensibility and natural beauty of description have never been surpassed; and that work and his '*Castle of Indolence*,' in imitation of Spenser, have placed him amongst the first of British poets.

Metastasio first became known by repeating extemporary verses in the streets of Rome. The beautiful singer Brugnattelli having entreated him to write for the stage, 1730, the poet, for half a century from this period, lived under the unvarying patronage of the imperial German family, composing innumerable pieces for the theatres; which for their sweetness, simplicity, and pathos, have been translated into most European languages.

Dr. Akenside, more known as a poet than physician, settled first at Northampton, and afterwards in London. His chief poetical work, and that on which his fame rests, is '*The Pleasures of Imagination*,' which places

him foremost in the rank of writers of blank verse. His faults are an excess of rhetorical ornament, and a pompous diction. Smollett, in his 'Peregrine Pickle,' makes him the giver of a feast after the manner of the ancients, in derision of his ostentatious living when physician to queen Caroline.

Dr. Edward Young, after an education at Winchester and Oxford, obtained the living of Welwyn, Herts, where he passed a retired life thirty-five years, dying at the age of eighty-four, 1765. His poem of the 'Night Thoughts' was occasioned by the loss of his wife (daughter of the earl of Lichfield), and the two children she had by her former husband, colonel Lee, who all died 1741. His stepson is Philander, and his step-daughter, Narcissa. The circumstance of his being obliged to bury the latter in a field by night at Montpelier, in France, because she was a protestant, is indelibly recorded in Night III. Dr. Young will ever live in his 'Night Thoughts,' which exhibit great power of language, with extraordinary conciseness and neatness. Though the general tenour of this deservedly popular work would lead us to suppose the author a stern and severe man, Dr. Young was, on the contrary, uniformly cheerful in temperament, and ever anxious to promote the innocent pastimes of his parishioners.

Allan Ramsay, styled the modern Theocritus, was a barber's apprentice in Edinburgh. His best work is 'The Gentle Shepherd.' His merit lay in describing rural habits, incidents, and scenery; and it is surprising to observe in this drama that it owes its celebrity alone to the mode in which he has told simple truths.

William Somerville, on quitting Oxford, resided on his large paternal estate at Edstone, Warwickshire, dividing his leisure hours between the sports of the field and literature. His 'Chase,' in blank verse, owes its celebrity to the practical knowledge of its author in sporting matters.

William Collins, of Chichester,

after an education at Winchester and Oxford, set up in London as a literary adventurer. Wholly wanting in the prudence necessary to render so precarious a mode of life the means of support, his disappointments made inroads upon a frame originally very sensitive and delicate; and though he did not suffer a positive loss of intellect, he was placed by his friends in a lunatic asylum, whence his sister took him to die at the age of thirty-six, 1756. His 'Odes,' during his life so little appreciated, are perhaps the most admirable productions of the kind in the whole range of English poetry; replete with pathos, noble in conception, highly imaginative, and unaffectedly sublime.

Charles Churchill, after an early imprudent marriage, obtained orders, and a Welsh curacy; sold cider to increase his income, and became a bankrupt. To extricate himself from debt, he wrote his 'Rosciad,' a poem in which he freely descants upon the talents of the actors of the day. His 'Ghost,' on the Cock-lane imposture (in which he satirizes Dr. Johnson), his 'Prophecy of Famine,' ridiculing the Scotch, and other works excellent alone for their ease of versification followed, and were highly popular with the multitude, who cared little for the poet's attacks upon religion and virtue, so long as they were amused. Churchill now threw off the clerical habit, repudiated his wife, and declared himself a man of the world. But his career was short; for paying his friend, Mr. Wilkes, a visit at Boulogne, he was seized with a fever, and died there, 1764, aged thirty-four.

Thomas Gray, educated at Eton and Cambridge, gave up the law, on finding himself possessed of a small independence by the death of his father. In his retirement at Cambridge, he printed his 'Ode on Eton College,' and his 'Elegy;' the latter of which instantly ran through eleven editions. Soon after accepting the professorship of Modern History at

Cambridge, he died, 1771, aged fifty-five. As a poet, Gray is flowing, energetic, and full of harmony, though without much pathos. His epistolary style is very admirable, and his Latin versification celebrated for its classic ease and purity.

William Shenstone, after leaving Oxford, determined to live a quiet life on his paternal estate, the Leasowes, in Shropshire. Here he wrote various poems, the best of which is the 'School-mistress;' and rendered the Leasowes celebrated for its picturesque beauty, and its hospitable and elegant treatment of a large literary circle. Shenstone's versification is graceful and pathetic, but wanting in energy: in prose, he was one of the most correct and pleasing writers of his day.

Richard Savage, unfortunate in being neglected by his parent, the countess of Macclesfield, was apprenticed to a shoemaker. His tragedy of 'Sir Thomas Overbury' having gained him friends, he was rising in reputation, when a quarrel in some disreputable society occasioned him to kill a Mr. Sinclair. He ultimately died in Newgate, 1743, aged forty-five; wherein he had been incarcerated for a debt of 8*l*. His poem, 'The Bastard,' had the effect of driving his unnatural parent out of the pale of society.

Colley Cibber, poet laureate under George II., gave up the profession of an actor for the composition of plays. He was especially successful with comedy, and his productions are full of sprightliness and elegance. His best works are 'The Careless Husband,' 'The Nonjuror,' and the 'Apology for his Life.' Pope unjustly made Cibber the hero of his 'Dunciad;' for he was a man of character, talent, and of a friendly disposition.

David Mallet of Edinburgh, tutor to the sons of the duke of Montrose, became secretary to the prince of Wales. His largest poem is 'Amyn-tor and Theodora;' but his most popular one the ballad of 'William and Margaret.'

John Dyer, author of the poem of

'Grongar-hill,' in which is a tasteful description of rural scenes, mingled with sensible moral reflections.

Sherlock, Bishop of London. He vindicated the corporation and test acts against Hoadley, and was always the able champion of orthodoxy; but his sermons are now the most valuable of his works, specimens as they are of sound divinity, manly eloquence, and convincing argument.

Rollin, who, as head of the university of Paris, enforced the cultivation of Greek literature, and rendered the college of Beauvais highly flourishing. He died 1741, aged eighty. His 'History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Babylonians, &c., and his 'Roman History to the Battle of Actium,' have ever been regarded as authentic works, eloquent in style, and free from dryness of detail.

Philip Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, was by turns in possession of courtly offices, and in the performance of diplomatic duties. His 'Letters to his Son,' intended to fit him for diplomacy, were published after his death by an interested relative; and it is enough to say that he has shown himself therein the advocate of hypocrisy, licentiousness, and infidelity, and has laboured to ingraft the morals of the abandoned profligate upon the tinsel education of the mere votary of polished manners. The earl died 1773, aged seventy-nine.

Richardson, the son of a Derbyshire farmer, became a printer in London, and was appointed by speaker Onslow printer of the journals of the commons. In 1740 appeared his 'Pamela;' then 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison.' In all his novels, the delineations of nature are most faithful, and every effort has been made to promote virtue and morality; but it is a question whether such minute details of the progress of vice, and such displays, however accurate, of the strategy of the human heart, as are to be found in 'Pamela,' are not likely to lead to the evils which they were intended to prevent.

The amiable author died, aged seventy-one, 1761.

Joseph Butler, bishop of Durham, was son of a presbyterian shopkeeper at Wantage; and having paid close attention to the contests then existing between the church of England and the dissenters, he declared in favour of the former, and took holy orders. The bishop of Durham, Talbot, gave him a living, and queen Caroline made him bishop of Bristol, whence he removed 1750 to Durham. His great work is 'The Analogy of Religion, natural, and revealed, to the constitution and course of Nature,' a book well worthy the attention of students in divinity. This excellent man was of a delicate temperament, and constitutionally subject to melancholy. He died, aged sixty, 1752. From the bishop's publication of a charge wherein he laid great stress on the necessity of the external forms of religion, coupled with his erection of a marble cross in his chapel at Bristol, it was absurdly alleged that he had turned Roman-catholic; an assertion which archbishop Secker satisfactorily refuted.

James Hervey succeeded his father in the livings of Weston Favell, and Collingtree, Northamptonshire, and attended to the duties of both churches with such assiduity, that his health, never very robust, gave way, and he died of consumption, aged forty-four, 1758. Hervey's tenets were Calvinistic; and he is best known by his 'Meditations,' a work which, while it displays the piety of the author, would be more deserving of praise, were it less pompous and affected in diction. The book has long been highly popular amongst a large class of readers, who, as Hervey himself might have said, are apt to prefer the gaudy tulips and dahlias of rhetoric, to her modest roses and violets and lilies of the valley.

Dr. Isaac Watts, after being tutor to the sons of Sir John Hartopp, at Stoke Newington, became preacher in a dissenting chapel in London. An attack of fever in 1712 obliged him to relin-

quish his duty, and Sir Thomas Abney thereupon invited him to reside with him at Stoke Newington, which he did until his death, at the age of seventy-five, 1748. He is well known for his 'Logic,' 'Improvement of the Mind,' 'Scripture History,' and 'Hymns,' which last, although by no means specimens of poetical excellence, have been, from their simple didactic and moralizing strain, highly popular and useful. He was an amiable man, mild, generous, and charitable in every sense of the word.

Reaumur, the French philosopher, was a man of fortune, and for nearly fifty years one of the most active members of the Academy of Sciences. He proved the turquoise to be the fossil tooth of the extinct mastodon; invented an excellent porcelain, and enamel; and constructed the improved thermometer which bears his name. He died 1757, aged 74.

Count Zinzendorf, of a noble family in Austria, having given leave to a leader of the Moravian brethren, named David, to settle with his followers on his estate, these poor people were soon joined by vast numbers who aided in building a village, which they called Hernhuth. Zinzendorf hereupon drew up statutes for their management and was constituted their bishop, 1736; and from this period the Moravian writers date the renewal of what they call 'the union of the brethren.' They profess to take the pure precepts of the gospel as the rule of their conduct; choose their ministers by lot; wash each other's feet; celebrate agapæ or love-feasts; and address their worship exclusively to the Saviour. The worthy but eccentric count died 1760, aged sixty.

Dr. Cheyne, the physician, a native of Scotland, but practising in London, having at the age of thirty, from high living, become excessively corpulent, insomuch that he could not mount a staircase without a sensation of choking, resolved to try the effect of a milk diet. In his work, the 'English Malady,' he relates how he thus re-

duced himself from thirty-two stone to a third, becoming a nimble and cheerful man, and living to the age of seventy-two (1743).

Dr. Smollett, after acting as a surgeon at the bombardment of Carthage, turned novel-writer, and gave to the world 'Roderick Random,' and other original works, besides translations of 'Gil Blas,' 'Don Quixote,' &c. He died near Leghorn, aged fifty-one, 1771. Smollett's novels exhibit an accurate picture of life and manners, though his characters are sometimes overstrained, and the scenes he depicts often at variance with decency. He is easy in style as an historian; and the portion of his 'England' from the Revolution, when that of Hume ceases, is generally published as a sequel to that author. Smollett's poetical powers were of no common order, and his 'Tear of Scotland,' in which he laments the massacre after the Culloden defeat, has been deservedly admired.

George Whitefield, founder of the Calvinistic branch of methodists, was son of an innkeeper at Gloucester; and after serving therein as a tapster, entered at Pembroke, Oxford, and was ordained by Benson, bishop of Gloucester. His first sermon at Gloucester is said to have driven fifteen persons out of their senses. After joining the Wesleys in their labours across the Atlantic, he returned to England 1738, and began to preach in the open air, in such convenient places as Moorfields and Kennington; and raised money enough amongst his admirers to erect the two tabernacles, as they are called, in Moorfields and Tottenham-court-road, London. In 1748, he converted Selina, countess of Huntingdon, who made him her chaplain, and gave her name to his sect. This singular man was tall in person, with a cast in one eye; he was devoid of the usual school learning, but naturally eloquent; and this quality he supported by various stratagems, taking from under his gown, while preaching on one occasion, a human skull, and

holding it aloft to arrest the flagging attention of his hearers. Perhaps he was as sincere as Wesley, and possessed of less vanity than he; though below him in general intellect, and especially in the capacity for rule. He died 1770, aged fifty-six.

Henry Fielding, after an education at Eton, set up as a stage-author; and through his proneness to mix politics with the drama, Walpole carried his point of submitting all pieces intended for the theatre to the licence of the lord chamberlain. The death of his mother put him in possession of a small estate in Dorsetshire, through which he ran in three years, from his ridiculous attempt to play the country squire; and he hereupon dedicated himself to the bar, and for immediate subsistence wrote the history of 'Jonathan Wild.' It was in 1742 that he appeared as a novelist, by sending forth 'Joseph Andrews,' in which the humour of Cervantes is so well-imitated as to have paved the way for all his subsequent works. These are alike felicitous for their portraiture of the world, their wit and humour; though the author too often glosses over vices with the specious title of frailties. Fielding was in the latter part of his life a justice for Middlesex, and during that period projected those two excellent charities in London, the Magdalen, and Asylum for Female Orphans. He died at Lisbon 1754, aged forty-eight.

Archbishop Secker, son of a dissenting minister, was, in a few years after ordination, made bishop of Bristol, then of Oxford, and in 1758 archbishop of Canterbury. He was a martyr to rheumatism, and died 1768, aged seventy-five, through the fracture of a bone while turning on his couch. His sermons, and lectures on the catechism, are perspicuous, eloquent, and argumentative; and admirably illustrate the pure and apostolic doctrines of the church of England. The dissenters had always expected a great deal from Secker, from the circumstance of his birth amongst them-

self; but he always showed himself the uncompromising supporter of that church of which he was ultimately the head.

Helvetius, father and son; the first a Dutch physician, who being at Paris when a violent dysentery prevailed, stayed the alarming malady, and was munificently rewarded by Louis XIV. He then declared the medicine he had used to be *ipeacuanha*. His son cured Louis XV. of a dangerous disorder, and gained the confidence of the poor, as well as of the court, by his skill and humanity. The son of the latter, Claude, was an atheistical French writer; but spent his large fortune in acts of bounty to the poor. He came to England, when driven from France for the licence of his works; and afterwards resided at that centre of atheism, the court of Frederick the Great.

Dr. Lardner, eminent among the dissenters, who will ever be respected for his work '*On the Credibility of the Gospel History*,' which has been translated into more than one continental language.

Linnaeus, a Swede, took his degrees in medicine at Leyden, and was ennobled by his sovereign for his skill as a physician. To his sagacious discernment, science is indebted for the use and familiar division of plants, animals, herbs, &c. into classes; and before the publication of his '*Genera Plantarum*,' he had most minutely examined the characters of more than 8000 plants. He died at Stockholm, 1778, aged seventy.

Voltaire, the most celebrated literary man of his age, received his education at the jesuits' college in Paris; but instead of studying for the bar, he was always seen among a society of wits and epicureans. Being compelled to quit France in consequence of a broil with the chevalier de Rohan, he took refuge in England; where George I. enabled him to obtain subscribers sufficient to publish his '*Henriade*,' the only epic poem which France can boast, and which is deservedly esteemed for its high sentiments, smooth

versification, faithful delineations of character, and elegance of style. During similar periods of exile for his deistical publications, Voltaire supplanted the Cartesian philosophy, (which had hitherto prevailed in France, and had undermined the Copernican theory of the universe) by establishing the Newtonian system. In 1750 he accepted Frederick the Great's invitation to reside at Berlin, with a pension of 22,000 livres; for which he was to devote two hours a day to correcting the king's works. Here, however, he entered into the dispute between the two mathematicians, Maupertuis and Koenig; and being dismissed his office, he finally bought an estate at Ferney near Geneva, a savage spot belonging to France, having a village with only fifty inhabitants. By his means the place became fertilized; and in a short time 1200 persons, principally watchmakers, established their manufacture there, exporting their labours all over the continent. There Voltaire afforded protection to the great niece of Corneille, and did much for the family of the unfortunate Calas. Frederick the Great, Catherine II. of Russia, and even the people of Paris, now courted him again; and at the great age of eighty-four he hastened to the capital, where, during the performance of his *Irene*, his bust was crowned in full theatre. The great excitement consequent on this visit, carried the philosopher to the grave in a few weeks after his arrival at Paris, 1778. Voltaire's chief talent lay in a capacity to turn every thing into ridicule. As a prose writer he was equal and unaffected; as a dramatic poet, not inferior to Racine and Corneille; but as an historical narrator, superficial and careless; and his character has thus concisely been summed up: 'By turns he was the sententious moralist, and the grotesque buffoon; the imperturbable philosopher and the raving enthusiast; the flattering parasite and the venomous satirist; the pinching miser and the prodigal voluptuary; the modest scholar and the

reckless wit; the humble Christian, (for such a guise he could assume), and the blasphemous atheist.'

Ninon de l'Enclos, daughter of a gentleman of Touraine, being left mistress of a large fortune at fifteen, resolved, to the scandal of her sex, to pass life without restraint. Her beauty was great, and her talents of that high order, that Madame Maintenon tried every art to reform her, but in vain. The power of her natural beauty was indeed tragically illustrated by the often told adventure of one of her own sons, who, being brought up in ignorance of his birth, fell desperately in love with her; and when informed of his relation to the object of his affection, committed suicide, an event recorded by Le Sage in his 'Gil Blas.' Ninon died at the age of ninety, 1706; and it is instructive to remark, she was herself so conscious of having mistaken the road to genuine satisfaction, that she thus expresses herself in a letter to St. Evremond: 'Every one tells me I have less reason to complain of time than any one (for she had preserved her charms to the last): however that be, if such a life were again proposed to me, I would rather hang myself than go through it.'

Fontenelle, considered by Voltaire the most universal genius of Louis XIV.'s reign, quitted the law for literature, and passed in authorship a life that extended to a century. His chief works are 'Dialogues of the Dead,' which mingle moral and literary subjects with ingenious and polished discussions; and the 'History of Oracles,' in which he maintains the imposition of the ancient oracles, in opposition to the fathers, who accounted them the supernatural operation of demons, silenced by the coming of Christ. He died, 1757.

Algarotti, of Padua, who wrote amongst other works, 'Newtonian Philosophy for the Ladies,' in dialogues, as Fontenelle had done his Cartesian Astronomy, under the title of 'The Plurality of Words,' each giving a popular account of the respective hypo-

theses. Algarotti is considered a reformer of the Italian opera; and after seeing his works translated into several languages, he died, aged fifty-two, 1764.

Lady Mary Wortley Montague, the duke of Kingston's daughter, whose education was superintended by bishop Burnet, at twenty translated the 'Enchiridion, of Epictetus.' She accompanied her husband, Mr. Edward Montague, when he went ambassador to Turkey; and hence arose a correspondence with Pope and others, which has established her fame as a writer. She introduced inoculation for the smallpox on her return, in imitation of the Turks. Her claims as a poet are to ease and grace, though with a too frequent disregard of delicacy; but as a letter-writer she will ever be accounted great, for her wit, solidity, and descriptive powers. She died 1762, aged seventy-two.

Hogarth, having commenced life as an engraver of arms and shop-bills, attempted portrait-painting, and was highly successful as regarded likeness; but caricature was his forte. After clandestinely marrying the only daughter of Sir James Thornhill, the painter, he began his series of moral paintings, which, while they brought him fame and fortune, secured to him the favour of his father-in-law. In 1753 he published his analysis of beauty; a quality which he makes to consist in that union of uniformity and variety, which is found in the curve or waving line. He was a man of rough manners, but of a generous and hospitable disposition, and so apt to be absorbed in the consideration of matters connected with his labours, that when in society, he committed extraordinary blunders. He died 1764, aged sixty-seven.

Handel, son of a surgeon in Saxony, was only nine when he composed the church service in score for the king of Prussia, who warmly patronized him, and sent him to Hamburg; where he was saved from the poniard of a jealous rival, by having a music-book

in his breast-pocket. In the same city, at fourteen, he produced 'Almeria,' his first opera, which was repeated thirty successive nights; and his fame being thus established, he travelled into various countries, arriving in London, 1710, where by the royal patronage, and the success of his oratorios and other pieces at the theatres, he lived in independence until his decease at the age of seventy-five, 1759. Some time before his death he became totally blind, and never heard his own air of 'Total Eclipse' in Samson, after that event, without extreme agitation. Handel's powers we can scarcely estimate too highly; and while fugue contrivance and full score were respected as they once were, he was unrivalled. His instrumental compositions surpass all others in vigour, spirit, and invention; his choruses have not been equalled in grandeur and simplicity since the invention of counterpoint; and his vocal pieces to this hour are acknowledged to stand higher in the general estimation, for expression and propriety of adaptation, than any other productions of their class.

Sir James Thornhill was brought forward by his uncle, the famous Sydenham; and amongst his principal works are the dome of St. Paul's cathedral, the great hall at Greenwich hospital, a room at Hampton-court, the hall at Blenheim, and the altar-piece of All Souls, Oxford. George II. knighted him. Thornhill's colouring was defective; but for the alleged faults of his perspective, some allowance must be made; since the difficulty must be great to give due effect to designs painted on vaulted, and often unequal-shaped ceilings.

Jedidiah Buxton, born in Derbyshire, seemed intuitively to have a knowledge of the relative proportions of numbers, their powers, and denominations; being so ignorant as to be unable either to read or write. He was once asked how many cubical eighths of an inch there are in a body, whose three sides are 23,145,789

yards, 5,642,732 yards, and 54,965 yards; and sitting with his hand over his eyes, in the presence of 100 labourers, he produced in five hours the exact answer, without putting down the figures. When taken to see Garrick play Richard III., he employed himself in counting the number of words the great actor uttered, and in numbering the steps of the dancers, seeming to care little otherwise for the entertainment. He died 1774, aged seventy. A youth, named Zerah Colburn, an American, evinced the same natural acquaintance with numbers in the early part of the present century; and the author on several occasions witnessed his speedy solution, in like manner, of questions requiring far greater exertion of memory and intellect than that propounded to Buxton.

Montesquieu, a French magistrate, author of 'Persian Letters,' replete with wit, but highly censurable for their levity on religious points. His 'Esprit des Loix,' which discusses the nature of the different forms of government, is a work of talent, but with the same lamentable disregard for the truths of revelation.—*Maupertuis*, a French philosopher, at the court of Frederick the Great, wrote principally on astronomy, and was one of the academicians sent to the north in 1736 by the king of France, to determine the figure of the earth.—*Dr. Stukeley*, the English antiquary, called the arch-druid, for his acquaintance with druidical lore. His 'Itinerarium Curiosum,' giving an account of the antiquities of Great Britain, is a valuable work.—*Rysbrack*, the statuary, son of the painter of Antwerp, celebrated for his landscapes, and the foliage of his trees, came early to England; and his monuments of Newton and the duke of Marlborough are amongst the finest specimens of sculpture in our island.—*Roubilliac*, the French sculptor, was chiefly engaged in England on sepulchral monuments, of which those for the duke and duchess of Montague at Boughton, and that for John, duke

of Argyll, in Westminster-abbey, are considered admirable proofs of his skill. Lord Chesterfield says that Roubilliac was our *only* statuary, and that all other artists were mere *stone-cutters*.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, INSTITUTIONS, AND USAGES.

The Foundling Hospital founded. Captain Coram, master of a merchant-ship, having been struck by the frequent instances of infants found deserted by their parents in the streets of London, made the evil so clear to the female nobility of his day, that great subscriptions were raised in addition to a handsome sum of his own, and a charter obtained for the establishment of a hospital, which was completed 1739, and is now considered a national foundation. At the close of life, the kind-hearted Coram was, from repeated losses, supported by the pension of 100*l.* a year, raised by his friends.

Stage Coaches first in use, 1744. Private coaches had been common in England in the early part of James I.'s reign: hackney-coaches too were then established: and private individuals now ventured to convey passengers from one town to another with all imaginable care and solemnity, the horses rarely going beyond a footpace. It was reserved for comparatively modern times to attempt a trotting-ride; and there are still living those who once rejoiced in a three days' journey between Oxford and London, or in the four days' funeral progress of the 'long Salisbury,' as it was aptly denominated, before entering into which it was usual for the passengers to make their wills. There were no more than six stage-coaches kept constantly at work in England in the year 1762; at which period thus writes Mr. John Cresset, of the Charter-house: 'These stage-coaches make gentlemen come to London on every small occasion, which otherwise they would not do but upon urgent necessity; nay the convenience of the passage makes their wives often come up, who rather than come such long journeys on horseback, would stay at home. Here, when they come to

town, they must presently be in the mode, get fine clothes, go to plays and treats; and by these means get such a habit of idleness and love of pleasure, that they are uneasy ever after.' What, however, would Mr. John Cresset say to the Jehu-like coachmanship of our own day, which has blotted out all traces of the ancient graver mode, much in the way that the scientific Lardner predicts the process of discovery will throw into shade all the wonders of the steam-engine. Railroads too are called in aid, and locomotive carriages scorn to be dragged by dull horses; so that there is already no knowing how to calculate distances by time. It is only a few months since that a person went to Liverpool from Manchester, thirty miles, purchased and took back with him to Manchester on the railroad 150 tons of cotton; this he immediately disposed of, and the article being liked, an offer was made to take another such quantity. Off he starts again, and actually that evening delivered the second 150 tons, having travelled 120 miles in four journeys, and bought, sold, and delivered, thirty miles off, at two distinct and consecutive deliveries, 300 tons of goods in twelve hours! What would Mr. John Cresset of the Charter-house say to this?

Nova Scotia, 1749, was first made a colony by the British. It is on the mainland of North America, near the river St. Laurence, which bounds it on the north; and is about 150 miles long by 400 broad. Continuing true to the mother country when the United States threw off their allegiance, it has become a place of great consequence both to the remaining American possessions of England, and to England herself. Its shipping and seamen have rapidly increased; vast numbers of families have emigrated thither from

Canada and the mother country; and a bishop now manages the spiritual concerns of the country. Under the estimable Dr. Inglis, at present holding the see, more has been done towards the firm establishment of this scion of our church than could have been supposed possible in so brief a space of time; while the temporal wants of the poor have been supplied by the same good management, with an equal degree of readiness and judgment.

Westminster Bridge was completed 1750, at a cost of 426,650*l.* It is 1223 feet long and forty-four wide, and has fifteen arches large and small, the centre one being seventy-six feet wide, and the two smallest twenty-five. M. Labylie, a Swiss, was the architect; and the work, at the time of its erection, was esteemed one of the noblest structures of the kind in the world.

The Pyrometer invented by Muschenbroeck, a Dutchman, for measuring the expansion of bodies by heat. It has been of essential service in the manufacture of machines required to be exempt from the alternations of heat and cold, such as the pendulums of clocks, and measures of yards or feet. The expansion of bars of different metals, of the same dimensions, and by the same degree of heat, is found by the pyrometer to be: Iron 60, gold 73, copper 89, brass 95, silver 103, lead 149; so that iron being the least rarefied of any of these metals, is most proper for the purposes mentioned.

Society of Antiquaries incorporated, 1751. So long back as Elizabeth's reign, a body so called used to meet at Sir Robert Cotton's house, to promote researches into British antiquities and history; but James I. being jealous of the plan, supposing it a political society which watched the secret designs of government, dissolved it. It revived, however, in the reign of George I.; and a charter was obtained from George II., empowering the body to have a seal, and statutes, and to hold lands to the yearly value of 1000*l.*

The inquirer in this branch of knowledge furnishes the historian with his best materials, while he distinguishes from truth the fictions of a bold invention, and ascertains the credibility of facts; and to the philosopher he presents a fruitful source of ingenious speculation, while he points out to him the way of thinking, and the manners of men, under all the varieties of aspect in which they have appeared.

Electricity and Lightning discovered to be identical. Dr. Stuber, in his supplement to the life of Dr. Franklin, thus relates the philosopher's important discovery: 'It was not until the summer of 1752, that he was enabled to complete his grand and unparalleled discovery by experiment. The plan which he had originally proposed was, to erect on some high tower, or other elevated place, a sentry-box, from which should rise a pointed iron rod, insulated by being fixed in a cake of resin. Electrified clouds passing over this, would, he conceived, impart to it a portion of their electricity, which would be rendered evident to the senses by sparks being emitted, when a key, the knuckle, or other conductor, was presented to it. Philadelphia at this time afforded no opportunity of trying an experiment of the kind. While Franklin was waiting for the erection of a spire, it occurred to him that he might have more ready access to the region of clouds by means of a common kite. He prepared one, by fastening two cross sticks to a silk handkerchief, which would not suffer so much from the rain as paper. To the upright stick was affixed an iron point. The string was, as usual, of hemp, except the lower end, which was silk. Where the hempen string terminated, a key was fastened. With this apparatus, on the appearance of a thunder-gust approaching, he went out into the commons, accompanied by his son, to whom alone he communicated his intentions, well knowing the ridicule which awaits unsuccessful experiments in philosophy. He placed himself under a shade to avoid the

rain, his kite was raised,—a thunder-cloud passed over it,—no sign of electricity appeared. He had almost despaired of success, when, suddenly he observed the loose fibres of his string to move towards an erect position. He now presented his knuckle to the key, and received a strong spark. How exquisite must his sensations have been at this moment! On this experiment depended the fate of his theory.'

The New Style, 1752, was adopted in Great Britain. The *old style*, or Julian (from its reformation by Cæsar), makes the Julian year 365 days six hours; the *new* or Gregorian (from pope Gregory XIII., 1582) corresponds with the true or solar year, which contains 365 days, five hours, and forty-nine minutes. In 1752 it was found that, by the gradual increment of the overplus minutes, eleven days must be struck out of the calendar to render the date a correct notification of the earth's precise situation in her orbit. The third of September therefore, in that year, was reckoned as the fourteenth, so that there were no such days as from the third to the thirteenth inclusive of September, 1752; and to preserve the same order in future, every fourth year was to consist of 366 days, which giving only eleven minutes more in each year than the sun takes in returning to the same point in the zodiac, it will only require the omission of a day once in about 130 years, to correct the calendar perfectly again. The term *leap*, applied to the fourth year of 366 days, had thus its origin. In any two years, not bissextile, one succeeding the other, the first of May, or other day, being on a Monday in the former of the two, would be on a Tuesday in the following one; whereas, if the bissextile or leap year were the latter (the required day being after the month of February), it would fall on a Wednesday; thus, as it were, *leaping a day*.

The British Museum, London, established, 1753. The origin of this receptacle of valuable antiquities of our

own and other nations, was the purchase of the library and curiosities of Sir Hans Sloane by the public, for the national benefit, the knight leaving his collection, which had cost him 50,000*l.*, to be purchased by parliament for 20,000*l.* of his executors. Old Montague-house, Bloomsbury, built by the first duke of Montague for his residence, is, with various additions and improvements, the building containing the royal Cottonian, Harleian, Sloanian and other collections of books, including the splendid library of George IV., together with coins, subjects in natural history and the arts, precious stones, fossils, instruments of science, &c.; the relics of ancient Egypt, Greece, and Rome, and countless varieties connected with the forgotten days of our own and other countries. This has now become a national institution; and on certain days in the week, its valuable stores may be visited by all respectable persons, gratis.

The Asylum for Female Orphans was founded 1758, at the suggestion of the novelist Fielding. It is situated near Westminster-bridge, London, and has been, under the direction of judicious patrons, the means of conferring substantial blessings upon society.

The Magdalen Charity, London, 1758, founded by Mr. Robert Dingley, and a party of friends, at the suggestion of the magistrate, Fielding. Dr. Dodd, of unhappy memory, officiated as its first clergyman, and induced Charlotte, queen of George III., to become its patroness, when the new building was completed for the reception of its eighty penitents, in Blackfriars. The sad end of Dr. Dodd was nearly fatal to the interests of the charity; but, by the activity of certain stanch friends, and especially by the warm support of the Radnor family, the affairs of the institution began at length to flourish, and have so continued to prosper to the present day. Conducted as they have been for the last fifty years, the consequences to society have been not simply beneficial, but glorious; and

none are more fully entitled to the praises of their fellow men, nor can have a surer hope of a reward above, than they who have studiously been engaged in the godlike task of reclaiming the most abandoned, of instructing the most ignorant, of healing the sorrows of betrayed and despairing woman, and of drawing the veil of charity and of silence over the treachery, the folly, and the depravity of man. It is a tribute due to the memory of its recently departed chaplain, the Rev. John Prince, and to the surviving president, Sir James Allan Park, to state that much of the present success of this institution, under God, is attributable to them: hand in hand, and heart joined with heart, they have spared neither time nor pains in this

labour of love, during the better portion of half a century: they have found friends and supporters for the institution, and have kept them together: the one ever at his post, and the other ready to act in all emergencies, they have gone on in the blessed work of leading sinners to repentance,—and have been assured of the sincerity of that repentance. The one is now gone to receive his high reward: but great must be the peace of him who survives, and who, in his last hour, will feel the full comfort of the assurance, that ‘he who has converted the sinner from the error of her way,’ and contributed to ‘turn many to righteousness, shall shine as the stars for ever and ever.’

CHIEF BATTLES.

Dettingen, 1743, between the French, who had 60,000 under marshal de Noailles, and the English, commanded by the king and the earl of Stair. George II. was in danger of being made prisoner; and this is the last battle in which a British sovereign held command. It was won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.—*Fontenoy*, 1745, wherein the French had 120,000 under count Saxe, son of the king of Poland, and the British an inferior force under the duke of Cumberland. The French gained the victory.—*Rosbach*, 1757, wherein Frederick the Great beat the French and Austrians, and repaired most of his losses.—*Breslau*, 1757, by gaining which, Frederick the Great recovered Silesia, taking 16,000 of the Austrians prisoners.—*Minden*, 1759, gained by prince Ferdinand of Brunswick over the French, commanded by marshal de Contades. The British and Hanoverian horse were led by lord George Sackville, who was, on his return to England, cashiered for disobeying prince Ferdinand's orders.—*Quebec*, 1759, whereby the British obtained Canada from the French, though at the cost of the intrepid general Wolfe's life. The British govern-

ment, upon ascertaining the value of this conquest, endeavoured to supplant the French system of administration by a constitution similar to that of England; and accordingly, in 1784, the habeas-corpus and trial by jury were introduced. In 1791, upon the appearance of dissatisfaction on the part of the French portion of inhabitants, Mr. Pitt, the English minister, granted the Canadians a new constitution, and an act was passed, dividing their country into the Upper and Lower Province, each having a parliament and governor of its own; Upper Canada (its capital Quebec) being almost wholly peopled by British settlers, and Lower Canada (its capital Montreal) by emigrants from France.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1703, Achmet III.; 1730, Mahomet V.; 1754, Osman II.; 1757, Mustapha III. *Portugal*. 1705, John V.; 1750, Joseph I. *Spain*. 1700, Philip V.; 1746, Ferdinand VI.; 1759, Charles III. *Germany*. 1711, Charles VI.; 1742, Charles VII.; 1745, Francis I. of Lorraine and Maria Theresa of Austria. *Poland*. 1609, Frederick Augustus I.; 1733, Stanislaus re-elected, and Frederick Au-

gustus II. *Prussia*. 1713, Frederick VI.; 1741, Elizabeth Petrowna. William I.; 1740, Frederick II., the *Sweden*. 1720, Frederick of Hesse great. *Popes*. 1724, Benedict XIII.; Cassel; 1751, Adolphus Frederick. 1730, Clement XII.: 1740, Benedict *Denmark and Norway*. 1699, Frederick XIV.; 1758, Clement XIII. *France*. Frederick IV.; 1730, Christiern VI.; 1715, Louis XV. *Russia*. 1727, 1746, Frederick V. Peter II.; 1730, Anne; 1740, Iwan

SECTION III.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

1760 TO 1820—60 YEARS.

Personal History. George III. was the son of Frederick prince of Wales and Augusta of Saxe-Gotha; and his birth took place June 4th, 1738, at Norfolk house, St. James's square, London, being the first of the line of Brunswick who was a Briton born. From his father's differences with his parent, the youth of George III. was passed in perfect seclusion: and he was educated in a private manner, according to the direction of the earl of Bute. When called to succeed his grandfather, he was unacquainted even with the persons of the late king's ministers. He espoused 1761, Charlotte, daughter of Charles, duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, by whom he had nine sons and six daughters: viz.—1. *George IV.* 2. Frederick, duke of York; 3. *William IV.*; 4. Charlotte, married to the duke, afterwards king, of Württemberg; 5. Edward, duke of Kent, father of our present gracious queen; 6. Augusta; 7. Elizabeth, married to the duke of Hesse Hombourg; 8. Ernest, duke of Cumberland; 9. Augustus, duke of Sussex; 10. Adolphus, duke of Cambridge; 11. Mary, who married her cousin the duke of Gloucester; 12. Sophia; 13, 14. Octavius, and Alfred, who died young; 15. Amelia, who died unmarried, aged twenty-seven, 1810. George III. was in person manly and robust, of a good height, with a fair and ruddy complexion: his general appearance was that of an English country-gentleman. Though hurried in speech, and apt to repeat questions, his manners were easy and urbane: and he would delight in conversing with any of his subjects who chanced to come in his way. His tastes and amusements were plain and practical; literature and the fine arts took up little of his time, but hunting, mechanical contrivances, and domestic converse, were his delight. Religious, moral, and temperate, the decorum of his private life was most exemplary: and there never was an instance, perhaps, in any nation, of a sovereign offering to his people so admirable a pattern of conjugal fidelity, and of parental wisdom, as that presented by George III. His consort too, was a very amiable princess; and though somewhat parsimonious for her elevated station, she was deservedly regarded as a purifier of the court, and as a model, in the strict performance of the relative duties of wife and mother, to every female in the kingdom. Like the other members of the Brunswick family, George III. was possessed of presence of mind on occasions of difficulty; and, arduous as were his trials, no consideration could shake his firmness. In a word, it may be asserted, that a more virtuous, paternal, and pious king never sat upon any throne; nor was there ever a ruler of men who manifested a more awful sense of the source from which he derived his authority, or of the great and beneficial end for which it was designed.

Political History. George III., when he succeeded his grandfather, was in

his twenty-third year. Of a handsome person, and unspotted reputation, he gave great satisfaction in his speech to the council, by saying that he gloried in being by birth an Englishman. He had also another great advantage over his predecessors of the house of Brunswick: the cause of the excluded family was now lost for ever: most of the Jacobites, therefore, readily took the oath of allegiance to him, and the spirit of loyalty, which had slumbered from the period of the revolution, roused itself to greet the monarch who was a Briton born. The commons having complimented the new king, by an ample civil list, and a bountiful supply of money to continue the war, George, in return, made the judges independent of the crown, an act which was alone wanting to render the mode of legal jurisdiction in England superior to that of any other existing nation.

Meanwhile the war continued to be supported with vigour: prince Ferdinand, at the head of the allies, pursued his victorious career in Germany, and Belleisle, on the coast of France, was captured by admiral Keppel. The French court hereupon secretly entered into a treaty with Spain, called 'the family compact,' which Mr. Pitt discovered; but as the nation would not give credit to his statements, he resigned the seals, and a new administration, excluding the whigs, who had been the main supporters of the Hanoverian succession, was framed by the earl of Bute. This ministry soon found Mr. Pitt's intelligence to have been correct; and every means was taken to assail the Spaniards, Havannah, their most valuable possession in the West Indies; Manilla, the capital of the Philippine isles in the East Indies; and two millions sterling from the galleons, were speedily in the hands of the British. The issue was, that all the continental powers became tired of a war which was hourly draining their resources, and giving a proportionate access of force to the British: the latter therefore lamented to find a treaty of peace signed, 1763, by which England was allowed to keep Canada, and other vast conquests, and to exchange Florida for the Havannah.

Lord Bute soon after this resigned, upon passing an unpopular act, whereby a tax was laid upon cider; and when Mr. George Grenville succeeded him, great attacks were made upon the king and the government by libellous writers. On the publication of number forty-five of a paper, called the North Briton, conducted by Mr. Wilkes, the member for Aylesbury, wherein the king was charged with having uttered a deliberate falsehood in his speech to the houses, a general warrant, that is, one in which the names of the parties to be arrested are not specified, was issued for the seizure of the author, printers, and publishers of that paper. As the judges decided that the privileges of parliament extended even to the case of writing a libel, Mr. Wilkes and his party were imprisoned; but the commons declared the reverse, and while the matter was debating, Wilkes escaped to France, leaving the parliament to settle the great constitutional question, that general warrants were illegal. On the member's return to England, however, having been elected for Middlesex, the house again took up the dispute. Wilkes was fined 1000*l.* for his former offence, and imprisoned twenty-two months: at the end of which a riot was occasioned, 1768, by a mob assembled to carry the member to parliament in triumph. A death, and some wounds, in the skirmish with the soldiers, brought great odium on the latter; and Mr. Wilkes was expelled the house for a virulent invective he thereupon set forth against those in power. It was then that the letters of Junius, an anonymous author, so distinguished for their brilliancy of style and caustic severity, came forth, with a host of inferior works, in support of Wilkes, and what was called 'the cause of the people.'

The attention of the country, however, was soon to be turned to more

important considerations. The marquis of Rockingham had taken the reins of government during the year 1766, and Mr. Pitt, now earl of Chatham, had formed a new ministry in 1767, with the duke of Grafton at the head, to prevent, if possible, the on-coming of the various storms that threatened the political horizon. Our American colonies, sore at being taxed to bear their proportion of the burdens of the mother-country, had shown a disposition to resist even by force of arms: the East India Company's affairs were all in confusion, through the avarice and rapacity of their servants, and the attacks of Hyder Ally, a common sepoy, who had raised himself to the rank of a sovereign prince: and Ireland had shown a determination to have her parliament unfettered, by obtaining the octennial act, which limited its duration to eight years, it previously having been dissolved only on the demise of the crown. Lord Chatham soon felt, from his declining health, that it was wise to retire, the duke of Grafton imitated his example, and lord North succeeded. This frequent change of ministry greatly affected the English character on the continent; and even in England there was a general disposition to distrust the government, and to disobey the laws, when it was observed that opinion fluctuated with the passing hour. The capture of Corsica by the French, after its revolt from the Genoese, without any interposition on the part of the British, was another cause of complaint; and lord North saw the public discontent increased beyond measure, when the partition of Poland between Germany, Russia, and Prussia was effected, 1772. In domestic matters, too, he was harassed by the violence with which one or two questions were agitated. It had been deemed a breach of privilege to publish the debates in parliament; but those connected with the Middlesex election had been freely given to the public at all risks; and when the printers were arrested, the lord mayor (Brass Crosby) and Wilkes and Oliver, who were aldermen, declared the measure to be illegal, and threatened the commons' messenger with imprisonment if he detained the parties. Crosby and Oliver were accordingly sent to the Tower, and Wilkes was summoned to the bar of the house, on the eighth of April; but the house, fearing the effects of such a proceeding, adjourned its meeting until the following day, and thus virtually renounced its wish to forbid the free printing of the debates. From that day to the present they have been regularly reported. The marriage act, which prevented the royal family from marrying subjects, occupied also a large share of the minister's time: no descendant of George II. was to marry before twenty-five, and then not without the consent of the king in council; an arrangement which, as a prince is permitted to *reign* at eighteen, led to numerous jests, that were printed and sung in every direction, all ending with the maxim, 'that it was easier far to manage a kingdom than a wife.'

But the aspect of American affairs was yet more saddening. Troops had been sent into several of the chief cities, to awe the rebellious; and at Boston, in a riot, many persons had been killed. The celebrated Dr. Franklin was soon after sent over by the state of Massachusetts, praying the king to remove two obnoxious governors; and Dr. Wedderburne, the solicitor-general, being deputed to examine into the case, proved to the house that the petition was vexatious, so that the doctor was sent back, deprived of his office of postmaster-general, declaring, as he left the council-room, that he would never put on again the clothes he then wore, until he had received satisfaction. Nearly nine years after, he dressed himself in this suit, when he went to sign the treaty of Paris; which for ever deprived England of her power over the United States. The congress of Philadelphia, by its petition to a new parliament 1775, endeavoured to conciliate the government; but the houses declared, in their address to the king, that a rebellion already existed in Massa-

chussets, and that they would assist his majesty to suppress it with lives and fortune. Mr. Burke and other members laboured hard to avert the hazards of a contest ; but the die was now cast, and the Bostonians having assailed the British troops, war was finally declared. A tremendous conflict took place at a place called Bunker's hill, where the British under general Howe were victorious ; but not without the loss of 1000 men. George Washington was hereupon chosen generalissimo of the American army ; and on the 4th of July, 1776, the congress published its declaration of independence. General Howe, aided by the fleet of his brother, lord Howe, and by general Burgoyne, made it doubtful, from time to time, whether the English would not be in the end victorious ; but divided counsels at home, the unceasing vigour of Washington, and the acknowledgment by France, Spain, and ultimately by Holland, of the independence of the United States, made it evident that the colonists would soon gain their end. Still the spirit of the English nation was unbroken ; and when the Americans refused their offer of reconciliation, renewed ardour seemed to possess the British troops in America. Under Sir Henry Clinton and lord Cornwallis, in South Carolina, so great was the impression made upon the colonists, that they considered their cause utterly hopeless ; and Arnold, one of their chiefs in command, deserted to the royal cause. The acquisition, however, of this deserter, cost the life of one of Britain's bravest officers. Major André, having been sent to conduct the negotiation with Arnold, was unfortunately seized within the American lines, and hanged as a spy. In 1781, lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender to the enemy at York town ; and in 1782, lord North being succeeded in the ministry by Mr. Fox and the marquis of Rockingham, the independence of the United States was acknowledged.

The sudden death of the marquis of Rockingham in the same year, caused another change in the government : lord Shelburne was premier a few months ; when Mr. Fox and lord North, having entered into a coalition, forced themselves into the royal councils, in spite of the secret dislike of the king, and were about to pass a bill to regulate Indian affairs, when they were summarily dismissed. A new administration was again formed 1783, having Mr. William Pitt, second son of the earl of Chatham, chancellor of the exchequer ; who soon proved the most important of its members. From this period till 1790, the principal events were, the passing of a bill to regulate India affairs by Mr. Pitt himself ; the impeachment of Warren Hastings ; the reestablishment of the stadtholder's authority in Holland by the king of Prussia, when threatened with rebellion by his subjects ; the lamentable illness of the king, which incapacitated him for discharging the duties of government ; and a dispute between the English and Spaniards respecting Nootka Sound in North America, where the former had planted a small colony which the latter had seized, and which ended in an equitable convention. The king recovered, to the universal joy of the nation, 1789 ; and the attention of the people was immediately turned to a course of events, which to this day have not ceased to operate.

France had been long in a state bordering on anarchy. A series of wars, and a careless expenditure of the public revenue, had drained the exchequer ; inso-much that even the skill of Necker, celebrated as a financier, could devise no means to replenish its coffers. Besides all this, a very dissipated court, the engrossing of all patronage by the higher ranks (who disposed of state offices to their relatives and dependants without regard to merit), and the spread of works which directed men to claim their rights, and overthrow the tyranny of kings, combined to make more than the partisans of faction wish for a better order of things. When, moreover, a national bankruptcy was virtually

announced, the public indignation knew no bounds. By the advice of Necker, and Calonne, the comptroller-general, Louis convoked the ancient assembly of the States-general, which, meeting in one body, clergy, nobles, and commons, and assuming the title of *the national assembly*, commenced a total change in the constitution. Feudal privileges were abolished; local divisions set aside; monastic institutions suppressed; the country distributed into departments instead of provinces, to be uniformly taxed; and the English trial by jury substituted for the administration of justice by the old provincial parliaments. The count d'Artois (afterwards Charles X.), the prince of Condé, and others of the royal family, emigrated, and aggravated thereby the jealousy of the people. A furious mob instantly assailed the state-prison of the Bastille, and levelled it with the ground; and a national guard being formed, the notorious La Fayette was put at its head.

England watched these transactions with anxiety; though there were many who saw nothing but good in the impending clouds, and who thought that the sun of liberty would in a short period shine forth in France with renewed lustre. The continental sovereigns, however, were inclined to regard affairs in the gloomiest light, and perhaps accelerated the mischief by the promptitude with which they issued their threats against the authors of the rebellion: for no sooner had the duke of Brunswick's manifesto been published, than all power in France was given into the hands of the jacobins, who, storming the king's palace, massacred his guards, made himself and family close prisoners, and abolished royalty. Before the people had time to understand the full nature of these atrocious deeds, the unhappy king was brought to trial, and summarily decapitated, 1793.

During the period that France was thus distracted, the arms of England in the East Indies had been especially successful. Tippoo Saib, the son of Hyder Ally, subdued by lord Cornwallis, was forced to buy a peace by the cession of a large portion of his dominions, and the payment of an enormous sum; for the performance of which his sons were given as hostages. But the ferocious regicides of France did not long allow serenity to the English: they declared war against the king of Great Britain, and the Stadtholder, intimating, by this artful naming of two sovereigns without their subjects, that the people of these countries had an interest distinct from their respective rulers. It was, in fact, a war against *kings*. The duke of York was instantly sent to join the allies in their attack upon the jacobins; but the latter, in two campaigns, wholly defeated them. It was at that juncture that the fortified harbour of Toulon, which had been surrendered to the English, was wrested from them by Napoleon Buonaparte, who for the first time appeared on that scene, where he was afterwards to play so conspicuous a part. The French fleet, however, in the West Indies, was dispersed by lord Howe, and many of the colonies of France were captured: but England saw the parties who had entered with her so spiritedly into the war, gradually retire from the cause, until she was left alone to struggle with the enemies of order. The grand duke of Tuscany set the example of making a peace with France, and was followed by Spain, the Swiss, Sweden, and Holland; the latter of which, having expelled the stadtholder, declared itself a republic. The French, therefore, were free to pursue their career; and under the direction of Buonaparte, their armies soon drove the Austrians from Italy. England kept them in check on the seas, but at such an enormous expenditure of money, that in 1797, the bank became unable to supply the waste; while two mutinies broke out among the sailors, one at Spithead, and the other at the Nore, the latter of which was not quelled without bloodshed, and the execution of the ringleaders. At length, by 1798, Austria was forced into a treaty with the enemy; when the victorious Buona-

parte, after seizing Malta, invaded Egypt, and was only kept from penetrating to our Indian possessions by the watchful eye of Nelson.

Napoleon was soon after this elected consul, at Paris; and Russia, which had lately agreed to oppose the French, became neutral. Austria again commenced war, but was again forced into a treaty; and an armed neutrality, which had been formed by the northern powers during the American war, with the feigned purpose of protecting the trade of neutral vessels, but in reality to harass the British navy, was entered into again by Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. Nelson almost annihilated the lines of the Danish defence, and would have executed summary punishment on all concerned in the disgraceful confederacy, had not some of his ships run aground. This was in 1801; when the succession of Alexander to the Russian throne caused British rights to be better respected by the northern governments. The French being at this juncture expelled from Egypt by the English under Abercrombie, nothing but the total destruction of Great Britain would satisfy the councils of the French consul. He was soon, however, convinced how difficult a task it would be to evade the ever watchful Nelson; and satisfied of the superiority of England by sea, the attempt to invade our shores was abandoned, after a vast display along the whole north coast of France, of vessels ready to transport troops across the channel. Both countries seemed at this moment inclined to peace; and Mr. Addington succeeding Mr. Pitt as premier 1802, a treaty was entered into between France and England at Amiens.

From the period when this peace was signed, jealousies and discontents daily arose in both countries, and threatened to produce fresh hostilities. It was clear to the English that the consul of France meditated universal domination: Piedmont had been added to France, Switzerland had been invaded, and the whole of Italy, with the exception of Tuscany, was known to be, by various stratagems, in the interests of the French cabinet. Buonaparte, on the other hand, soon publicly spoke of the retention of Malta by England, in opposition to the late treaty, observing that it ought to have been restored to the knights from whom he had taken it; he also complained of the libels against him in the English papers, which he believed to be sanctioned by the government. These mutual bickerings soon produced more angry demonstrations; and the consul, during an audience granted to lord Whitworth, the English ambassador, so grievously insulted him, that he returned to England, and war was proclaimed. Buonaparte instantly overran Hanover, and compelled Prussia to close its ports against the English: while the English blockaded the mouths of such rivers as excluded the British traders, and took many French merchant-ships. The consul hereupon detained all English persons who happened at the moment to be in France, as prisoners of state; and again vainly threatened to descend with an overpowering force upon Britain. Mr. Addington retired in 1804, and Mr. Pitt returned to office, determined on curbing, if he could do no more, the ambitious designs of Napoleon; a course which was fully justified by the unprincipled murder of the duc d'Enghien. Immediately after the perpetration of this crime, Buonaparte had been declared emperor of the French, and king of Italy; and Spain, anxious to conciliate the man whose very name appeared to lead his soldiers to victory, entered into a treaty with him. Without a declaration of war, the British ministry gave orders for seizing the Spanish treasure-ships as they returned from South America, and two were taken; Nelson then pursued the combined French and Spanish fleets to the West Indies, and back again to Europe; and on the coast of Spain, at length, 1805, brought them, by astonishing perseverance, into action. Off cape Trafalgar, October 21,

a terrible engagement ensued, and the combined hostile fleets were totally annihilated; insomuch that, to this day, neither France nor Spain has ever been able to produce on the seas a force equal to that which they then respectively possessed. The brave Nelson, however, fell at the moment of victory; and when too late, the nation, as one man, lamented the fate of a commander, whose services had never been, when they ought to have been, sufficiently estimated.

So terrible a defeat spurred Napoleon to still greater efforts; and the victory of Austerlitz soon after, compelled the Austrian emperor to submit to any terms he dictated. It was in 1806 that Mr. Pitt, grievously affected by the impeachment of his colleague, lord Melville, died. Mr. Fox and lord Grenville formed a new ministry, and abolished the slave-trade; but the former of the two, who had been long the political rival of Mr. Pitt, died in the same year with him. It was now that the king of Prussia, Frederick IV., in a moment of chivalrous enthusiasm, thought to crush Buonaparte single-handed: but one campaign decided the fate of the war. At Jena, the Prussian cause was wholly ruined; and the king, stripped of half his dominions, implored assistance from the Russians, who suffered a total defeat in his defence at Friedland, and made a treaty with the emperor at Tilsit. Buonaparte then, by his celebrated Berlin decrees, closed all the most important continental ports against the manufactures of England; whereupon the latter power hurried off an expedition to Denmark, and seized the fleet of that country, which it was well known Napoleon intended to employ. The British arms were not so successful in other parts: Buenos Ayres, which had been taken by Sir Home Popham, was recovered by the inhabitants, and an armament, sent out under general Whitelocke, failed signally and disgracefully; while various attempts to aid the Turks and Swedes, and keep them at least neutral, failed.

The Grenville administration was soon supplanted by the remnant of Mr. Pitt's tory ministry; and in 1808 the affairs of Portugal and Spain wholly engrossed its attention. The regent of Portugal had fled to his colony of Brazil, and the French had taken possession of Lisbon: Spain, under the weak Charles, was, by the wasteful and unprincipled policy of Godoy, prince of the peace, in a state of revolution, so that the king gave up his crown to his son Ferdinand VII.: Napoleon was meanwhile devising how best he might add the whole peninsula to France. In a short space of time, the Spanish family was invited by the latter to meet him at Bayonne, just within the pale of France; and its members were there severally compelled to abdicate their claims upon Spain, whose crown the emperor had resolved to bestow on his own brother Joseph. This treacherous proceeding caused a general rising both of Spaniards and Portuguese; and at Madrid, to strike terror into the insurgents, a fearful massacre ensued by order of the French general Murat. Portugal was alone kept down by a like severity; but Cadiz was secured by the British fleet, the French army under Dupont, 15,000 strong, was compelled to surrender to the patriot Castanos, and a Spanish force, employed by Napoleon in Germany, revolted on hearing of the usage of the sovereign, and was conveyed by a British squadron to the peninsula.

It was on the 1st of August, 1808, that Sir Arthur Wellesley, with the British troops, landed in Portugal: his splendid career will be found briefly sketched in the account of the Peninsular War. To create a diversion in favour of Austria, again at war with Napoleon, the English sent an expedition to subdue the island of Walcheren, on the coast of Holland; but it ended disastrously. For after the island and the fortress of Flushing had been taken, disease seized the troops, and an immense sacrifice of life ensued. By 1811 great progress had been made by the British general, now lord Wellington, towards the expulsion of the

enemy from the peninsula : but the French, as they retreated from the land where their hopes had been baffled and their pride tamed, were guilty of crimes which deserve the unqualified reprobation of posterity. Every offence to which lust and rapine could prompt an unprincipled soldiery, was committed with impunity : the claims neither of sex nor age afforded protection from murderous outrage : and mangled corpses and smoking ruin marked the track by which these ruffian warriors retrograded.

In 1812, in consequence of the continued indisposition of George III., the prince of Wales had full powers given him as regent ; and upon the assassination of the prime minister, Mr. Percival, lord Liverpool was appointed his successor. Just as this change was taking place, Napoleon commenced a war with Russia, which, though attended with success in the onset, ultimately proved the ruin of this soldier of fortune. The French having advanced in spite of every resistance to Moscow, the Russians set fire to their city ; the invaders were forced to retreat ; the severity of a northern winter succeeded ; and by thousands the invaders perished, as they attempted a return to their native soil. The cause of Buonaparte in other parts was equally on the decline : in Spain, king Joseph attacked lord Wellington at Vittoria 1813, and was so completely beaten, that he fled with the remnant of his army into France, and thus evacuated the peninsula : while Prussia, Sweden, and Austria united against the discomfited emperor, and obtained a decisive victory at Leipsic. The retreat of the defeated troops of Napoleon from Germany was most calamitous ; and they had no sooner crossed the Rhine, than the allied armies followed, and penetrated at once into the heart of France, 1814. Just as lord Wellington had gained a complete victory over marshal Soult at Toulouse, he was informed of Napoleon's abdication, and that consequently the war he had conducted with such consummate prudence was at an end. His lordship soon after joined the emperor of Russia and king of Prussia at Paris ; Buonaparte was removed to the little isle of Elba, on the coast of Italy, with sovereign power ; and Louis XVIII. was recalled from exile to ascend the throne of his ancestors.

But a year had scarcely elapsed, when all Europe was once more put in agitation, on hearing that Napoleon had landed again upon those inviting shores which were ever in his view. A congress of ambassadors from the leading powers was assembled at Vienna at the moment of this event, to settle the peace of Europe ; and it was now compelled to devise the readiest means of meeting an evil so strangely unapprehended. The issue was the important battle of Waterloo, 1815, which closed with the surrender of the disturber of nations, and his exile to St. Helena. Louis XVIII. was restored without opposition, a few of Napoleon's most zealous partisans, of whom the chief were marshal Ney and colonel Labedoyere, suffered the penalties of treason, but the greater part of the delinquents escaped with impunity. The wars which had so long distracted Europe, were at length fairly terminated ; and a peace, which promised, from the exhausted state of all the nations concerned, to be one of considerable duration, was established.

The result to England, however, was at the moment highly prejudicial. The sudden closing of the channels of trade threw all the goods of the manufacturers upon their hands ; no mart was to be found for them ; they were, moreover, from the competition existing amongst all classes, greater in amount of supply than even the fullest demand had required. The disbanding too of an army, increased in numbers by the long necessity for soldiery, and the support of the members of which was now to fall upon the country in a less manageable mode (a new employment having to be found for men accustomed

from their youth to military practices alone), produced a discontent, which soon displayed itself in alarming riots. Designing men were not wanting to take the lead in these rebellious doings; and under the plea of effecting a reform of parliament, which was to give bread to the starving, and clothes to the naked, vast meetings were called together of the populace by Mr. Hunt and others, only to be dispersed by military interference. As deaths usually take place in such collisions, common cause was made by the mob and their directors against the soldiery; to whose credit be it said, and to the admirable discipline existing in the British armies, and in the militia and sub-military institutions, that their patience was never to be overcome, their firmness never to be shaken, and their loyalty never, by the slightest act of disobedience, to be called in question. The suspension of the habeas-corpus act, and the imprisonment of Hunt and others of the leaders, had the effect of restoring tranquillity after a time; while an expedition against the Algerines, to punish the audacity of those pirates, and the great domestic calamity of the death of the heiress apparent to the throne, helped to employ the public mind on subjects not so immediately connected with personal distress. The attempts of the continental monarchs to restore their lost power in various ways, now that the enemy of kings was no more, was attended with ill-success in some instances; particularly in Spain, where Ferdinand VII. alienated the affections of his people by restoring the inquisition; and when the extensive colonies, which the country had so long possessed in South America, revolted in 1819, the troops refused to embark to put down the insurrection, and compelled the monarch to give Spain itself a free constitution. Similar revolutions took place in Portugal, Naples, and Piedmont; but in the two latter countries, the old despotic governments were restored by the Austrians. On the 29th of January, 1820, George III., at the advanced age of eighty-one, died at Windsor castle, after a reign of nearly sixty years, the longest and most memorable in the annals of England; and his remains were interred with due magnificence in the chapel of St. George at Windsor.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Cock-lane Ghost detected, 1762. That so absurd a matter should occupy as it did the minds of thousands of the educated portion of a city the greatest, and for aught we know, the most intellectual in the world, is indeed a subject of contemplation for the metaphysician and moralist, as it would have been rich food for a Democritus. It was an imposture connected with what is technically called 'a haunted house,' in London, wherein a girl is supposed to have been the chief agent. Dr. Johnson was one of the principal discoverers of the cheat, much as it was beneath the dignity of the great moral philosopher so to interest himself in the silly affair; respecting which, Mrs. Montague thus writes to Mrs. Robinson: 'As I suppose you read the newspapers, you will see mention of the ghost; but without you were

here on the spot, you could never conceive that the most bungling performance of the silliest imposture could take up the attention and conversation of all the fine world. And as the ways of the *beau monde* are always in contradiction to the gospel, they are determined to show that, though they do not believe in Moses and the prophets, they would believe if one *were* to come from the dead, though it were only to play tricks like a rat behind a wainscot!'

The Isle of Man annexed to the British crown, 1765. (See page 262.)

Wilkes's Riot, 1768. When Mr. Wilkes had returned from his exile, and been sentenced to an imprisonment of twenty-two months, the lower orders still imagined that, as a member of parliament, he must be liberated when the commons assembled. Ac-

cordingly a vast mob had collected round the king's bench prison on the day of opening, with the intention of escorting him in triumph to Westminster. The Surrey justices called out the yeomanry, and read the riot-act, as the crowd refused to disperse; and upon the soldiers being ordered to fire, one man was killed and many wounded, several of whom died soon after. It happened that a Scotch regiment had been employed in the business, and the circumstance greatly increased the anger of the mob: but although the offenders, on being tried, were pronounced guilty, the government not only protected them, but expelled Mr. Wilkes the house of commons. He was re-elected, having 1143 votes, and Mr. Luttrell only 269; but the house was resolved, and Mr. Luttrell was chosen. Wilkes after this became a London alderman and lord mayor, and eventually took his seat for Middlesex. As chamberlain of London, a lucrative post, he devoted himself to the duties of his office; but, he was a vacillating, unstable character, without much principle. At one time the factious demagogue, at another the obsequious attendant at levees, no man could depend on him. He died in the isle of Wight, 1797, aged seventy.

Irruption of Solway Moss, 1771.

Bogs filled with peat-moss, like those of Ireland, originate in stagnant pools of water, which generate successive crops of minute plants on their surface, and each dying after the other, a matted bed is at length formed, growing to a vast height, and in irregular forms, under which the mass of water still continues. Long-continued rains occasioned that of Solway, in a vale by the river Esk, to burst, and overflow 800 acres of arable land: the inundation, which began in the night, destroyed twenty-seven habitations; but the families were fortunate enough to escape.

Execution of Dr. Dodd, 1777.

He had been long celebrated as a preacher, for his encouragement of the

Magdalen charity, and for his theological writings. Having unhappily contracted expensive habits of living, he forged a bond to support his credit, consoling himself with the hope that he might be able to repay its amount without detection. The person whose name he thus criminally presumed to falsify, was the earl of Chesterfield, to whom he had been tutor, and who, he flattered himself, would generously pay the money, should the fraud be discovered. But his noble pupil appeared against him; and though a petition in his behalf was presented to the king, signed by 27,000 respectable individuals, he was executed at Tyburn, 1777. In writing of him after that event, Dr. Johnson thus speaks: 'Of his public ministry, the means of judging were sufficiently attainable. He must be allowed to preach well, whose sermons strike his audience with forcible conviction. Of his life, those who thought it consistent with his doctrine, did not decide originally from false notions. He was at first what he endeavoured to make others; but the world broke down his resolution, and he in time ceased to exemplify his own instructions. Let those who are tempted to his faults, tremble at his punishment; and those whom he impressed from the pulpit with religious sentiments, endeavour to confirm them, by considering the regret and self-aborrence with which he reviewed in prison his deviations from rectitude.' Dr. Dodd was forty-eight when he came to his ignominious end; and his wife, left by his death in sorrow, poverty, and disgrace, died a wretched maniac, at Ilford in Essex, 1784.

Lord George Gordon's Riot, 1780.

A protestant association, with lord George Gordon at its head, had taken the alarm, in consequence of an act passed for relieving the Roman catholics from certain disabilities laid upon them by William III.; and they presented a petition for its repeal, signed by above 100,000 persons, to the commons on the second of June. In the

course of that day, several lords and commoners, supposed to be favourable to the catholics, were insulted by the populace; a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian and other Romish chapels were pulled down; and so many like outrages were committed, that it was found expedient to draw out the military. On the fifth day, a popish school and three priests' houses were destroyed. On the sixth, the mob were so riotous before the houses of parliament, that they were obliged to adjourn; and in the evening, when the keeper of Newgate refused to deliver up some imprisoned rioters, they set fire to his house and the gaol, and liberated 300 prisoners. They then proceeded to the Bank, which they would have plundered but for the exertions of Mr. Wilkes. In the evening, lord Mansfield, Sir John Fielding, and several private persons, had their houses burned, or pulled down. On the next day, the King's Bench prison, the new Bridewell in St. George's Fields, the Fleet prison, some popish chapels, and several papists' houses were destroyed. Fires were seen blazing in every part of the metropolis, and the lawless mob were exacting contributions from the citizens, while the magistrates, as if paralyzed, attempted nothing to check their progress. When soldiers were at length called into London from all quarters, the tumult necessarily subsided; but not before many had been shot in the conflict which ensued.

The Trial of Mr. Hastings, 1787.

Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Burke, Mr. Fox, and several others, brought forward a bill for the impeachment of Warren Hastings, late governor-general of India, for high crimes and misdemeanors in the execution of his office, which passed with but little opposition. The consequent trial before the house of lords lingered out during the seven succeeding years, and ended in the acquittal of the accused. The main charge against him was connected with his treatment of the native princes and population of Hindustan;

but there was clearly no foundation for such an accusation. Mr. Hastings, who had been educated at Westminster school, and gone early as a writer to India, retired with the wreck of his fortune, and an annuity from the company, to Daylesford, Worcestershire, where his family formerly had an estate, and where he passed the evening of his days in literary pursuits, dying 1818, aged eighty-six.

The Scotch Episcopal Church restored, 1792. (See page 335.)

The Cape of Good Hope, and Island of Ceylon taken from the Dutch by the English, 1795.

Mutiny of the Bounty. In 1787, the ship *Bounty* was fitted out by the English government, the command being given to lieutenant Bligh, to go to the South Sea islands for plants of the bread-fruit-tree, which afforded to the inhabitants of Otaheite especially, the greater portion of their food. These he was to convey to our West India possessions, to attempt their growth for the snpport of the slave population. The bread-fruit grows on a tree to the size of a penny loaf, with a thick rind; and before ripe, it is gathered and baked in an oven, when the internal part is like the crumb of wheaten bread, and found to be equally nutritive. On the arrival of the *Bounty* off the Friendly islands, on the 28th of April, a mutiny of some of the ship's officers and men broke forth, of which the following is the abridged narrative of the lieutenant: 'Just before sunrise on Tuesday the twenty-eighth, while I was asleep, Mr. Christian, officer of the watch, Charles Churchill, ship's corporal, John Mills, gunner's mate, and Thomas Burkitt, seaman, came into my cabin, and seizing me, tied my hands with a cord behind my back, threatening me with instant death if I made the least noise. I was hauled out of my bed, and forced on deck in my shirt, suffering great pain from the tightness with which they had tied my hands. The boatswain was ordered to hoist the launch out, and Mr. Hayward and Mr. Hal-

let, two of the midshipmen, and Mr. Samuel, were ordered into it. I demanded what their intention was in giving this order, and endeavoured to persuade the people near me not to persist in such acts of violence; when Christian threatened, with many oaths, to kill me if I would not be quiet. Such of the officers and men as the mutineers wished to get rid of, being already in the boat, Christian said, 'Come captain Bligh, your officers and men are now in the boat, and you must go with them; if you attempt to make the least resistance, you will instantly be put to death;' and without further ceremony, my hands were untied, and I was forced over the side. Being in the boat, we were veered astern by a rope. A few pieces of pork were thrown to us, and some clothes; and it was then that the armourer and carpenters called out to me to remember that they had no hand in the transaction. I had with me in the boat, in all eighteen;—there remained in the *Bounty* twenty-five,—the most able of the ship's company.' The mode in which lieutenant Bligh succeeded in bringing safe to land his defenceless crew on the 14th of June at Timor, near New Holland, after more than forty-days' exposure, reflects the greatest credit upon his name: and he was promoted, on his return to England, to the rank of commander. The English government were no sooner acquainted with this atrocious act of piracy, than they sent out the *Pandora* frigate, under captain Edwards, with orders to visit the Society and Friendly islands, and to use every endeavour to seize and bring home the delinquents. This voyage was in the sequel almost as disastrous as that of the *Bounty*, the ship being wrecked on her return, and the crew compelled to navigate 1000 miles in open boats; but the captain succeeded in taking fourteen of the mutineers, of whom ten were brought safe to England, the other four being drowned when the ship was wrecked. Twenty years had passed away, when Sir Sidney Smith informed the Admiralty

from Rio Janeiro, that captain Folger, of the ship *Topaz*, upon landing on Pitcairn's island, found there an Englishman, named Alexander Smith, the only person remaining of nine that escaped in the *Bounty*. Smith related that, after putting captain Bligh in the boat, Christian went to Otaheite, where all hands left her but Christian, Smith, and seven others, who each took wives, and then proceeded to Pitcairn, where they ran the ship on shore, and broke her up. About four years after their arrival, the Otaheitans came and killed every Englishman except himself; in retaliation of which, the widows of the deceased Englishmen arose and put to death the Otaheitans that same night, so that Smith was the only man left alive upon the island, with eight or nine women, and several small children. The whole population amounted, at Folger's visit, to about thirty-five; who acknowledged Smith as their father and commander; and Folger was informed that Christian became insane shortly after his arrival on the island, and threw himself off the rocks into the sea. Nothing more was heard of this party until 1815, when Sir Thomas Staines, in his passage from the Marquesas to Valparaiso, landed on the island, and found a venerable old man, John Adams, to be the only surviving Englishman of the *Bounty's* crew there; and his exemplary conduct, and fatherly care of the little colony, could not but command admiration. There being a dearth of water at Pitcairn, 1831, the people, eighty-one in number, were removed by a ship sent from New South Wales, to Otaheite, and were well received there by queen Pomarre; but when the British ship *Challenger* touched at Otaheite 1833, the party, dreading the consequences of an epidemic disease, had returned to their own island, where captain Freemantle afterwards saw them, and, as he thought, a good deal the worse for their visit, having come back drunkards, and distillers of the tee-root.

National Distresses, 1795. The vast weight of taxation arising from the duration of the war, and the high price of bread (fifteen pence the quart), occasioned many disturbances amongst the lower orders. At length, to relieve the burden of additional imposts, the patriotic portion of the wealthy in the kingdom raised, in the short space of fifteen hours and twenty minutes, a loan, to support the government, to the amount of eighteen millions! In 1797, the Bank was compelled to give up its issue of specie, and to send forth paper; and for the better accommodation of the public, notes of 1*l.* value were then for the first time allowed, without in any way affecting public credit, notwithstanding the alarm such a measure occasioned.

Mutiny amongst the Sailors, 1797. The spirit of insurrection, which had been unchained in France, was fast spreading over Europe; and as the rabble in England had been in a ferment for two years, the disaffection at last spread to the seamen of the channel-fleet, at Spithead, who deprived their officers of command, and threatened their lives. On receiving an increase of pay, these returned to their duty; but under one Parker, a more formidable insurrection broke out amongst the vessels at the Nore. Very extravagant demands being now made, government proceeded to take vigorous measures; and after some time, the mutineers, ship by ship, surrendered, and many of the ringleaders were hanged. It was to encourage loyal sentiments amongst the sailors, that Charles Dibdin at this time wrote his admirable sea-songs; and so productive were they of the object the author had in view, that the government awarded him a pension.

Rebellion in Ireland, 1798. As, during the American war, Ireland had been drained of her soldiers to cross the Atlantic, French and Spanish fleets threatened a descent upon that island. Arms, however, being provided by the English government, the

people, without other aid, imbodyed themselves as volunteers under the patriotic earl of Charlemont; and when all fear of invasion was at an end, they refused to lay down their arms, without the ministry should concede the independence of their parliament. A compliance with this demand in 1782 by no means, however, satisfied the people; and a repeal of the rest of the penal laws against the catholics was furiously called for in 1791. For several years, the combination of United Irishmen threatened a rebellion; and a band of French soldiers, landing on the island 1798, assisted the insurgents in attacking the force of the crown under general Lake. After an action of less than an hour, the French surrendered, and the final suppression of the insurrection was effected. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, the chief leader of the rebels, was arrested in Dublin; and being severely wounded in the struggle with the magistrates, he died in prison in a few days. From his papers it was discovered that he had intended an attack upon Dublin on the day of his decease.

The Income Tax Act passed, 1799. This was an odious tax, warranted only by the necessity of the times, which bore with great hardship upon all classes of subjects in England, but especially upon those who could least endure the pressure. It consisted of a per centage levied on all incomes nominal or real; and however precarious the stipend of the party taxed, and whatever portion of it still remained in the hands of his debtors, his per centage must still be paid.

Assaults on the King, 1801. Amongst the proofs of a constantly disturbed state of the public mind, may be brought the frequent attempts upon the life of a king, who was confessedly guided uniformly by a wish to benefit his people. In 1786 one Margaret Nicholson, made an attempt to stab the monarch as he alighted from his carriage; in 1796 a similar event occurred on his way home from the theatre; and in 1800, he twice nar-

rowly escaped death in one day; in the morning by a musket-shot from one of the soldiers he was reviewing in Hyde Park, and in the evening, Hadfield, a maniac, discharged a pistol at him in Drury-lane theatre. On all these occasions the intrepidity of the monarch was admirably evinced; and when, at the time of the council assembling to inquire into the affair of 1796, one lord was proposing one plan of detection, and another another, his majesty, with his usual piety, interrupted their deliberations, exclaiming, 'Let us not forget my lords, that while one is *proposing* this, and another is *supposing* that, there is One above who disposes all things, and whom I must not omit to thank for his mercies.' On that day, when the king returned to his palace, he took a stone out of the cuff of his coat, where it had lodged, and presenting it to the earl of Onslow, facetiously said, 'I make you a present of this, Onslow, to keep in recollection of the civilities we have met with to-day.'

Union of Ireland with Great Britain, 1801. The rebellion of 1798, and the danger then apprehended of Ireland's union with France, made the wiser statesmen in both countries think seriously of a legislative union. The measure, after much opposition, was finally accomplished; and the royal assent given to the act of union, 1801. By that act the Irish are admitted to a share of all the trade of Great Britain, except such as is confined to chartered companies, and is of course not free to the inhabitants of Britain at large. It was settled that the Irish commons should be represented by 100 members in the house of commons at Westminster; and the Irish peerage, spiritual and temporal, by four bishops, and twenty-eight lay-lords, chosen by the bishops and peers of Ireland to hold their seats for life. Ireland still retains her own laws and courts of justice, together with her court of chancery; and her majesty is represented in Dublin by a lord lieutenant, as when the two islands were two

kingdoms. Ireland is likewise exempted from all concern with the debt of Great Britain contracted before the Union; in which respect the terms granted to her are preferable to those which had been granted by England to Scotland; and her contribution to the imperial expenses is but as one to seven-and-an-half.

The Peace of Amiens, 1802, which lasted but a complete year, was the only compact entered into with Buonaparte by Great Britain. It was a peace to which all the tory party objected, and which the whigs declared they were not proud of; and its termination appeared to give general satisfaction to the country.

Despard's Conspiracy, 1803. In the beginning of this year, a plot was discovered to assassinate the king, and establish a revolutionary government. Colonel Despard, who had been regarded as a meritorious officer, was the ostensible head of the conspiracy; and he and six men in the lowest ranks of life, were convicted of high treason, and executed on Kennington common. In July of the same year, an insurrection, said to have been connected with Despard's disappointed party, broke out also in Dublin; when lord Kilwarden, chief justice of the king's bench, with his nephew, Mr. Wolfe, were dragged from his lordship's carriage, and put to death, before the rioters could be dispersed.

Duke of York's Trial, 1809. The duke was the second son of George III., and commander-in-chief of the British army. Colonel Wardle, in the house of commons, having accused him of promoting improper persons to military rank, through the influence of a Mrs. Clarke, an inquiry was instituted into his conduct, and he was honourably acquitted, though he thereupon resigned his post. In 1811, he was, to the great joy of the army, reinstated; and during the last years of the war with France, his royal highness, by an unceasing attention to the character and talents of the officers,

and to the comforts and health of the men, prepared for his country, under God, the most splendid victories which our annals boast. Trained under a system so admirable, the army seemed to increase in efficacy in proportion to the increasing occasion which the public had for their services. Nor is it a less praise that, when the men so disciplined returned from scenes of battle, they reassumed the habits of private life, as if they had never left them; and that of all the offences which the criminal calendar long after presented, there were very few instances indeed in which the perpetrators were disbanded soldiers.

The Jubilee of George III., 1809, to commemorate his majesty's completion of the fiftieth year of his reign, was celebrated with great splendour, October 25. The public were entertained in every possible manner gratuitously; and the same ceremonies were repeated August 1, 1814, when the House of Brunswick in England completed its hundredth year.

Death of the Princess Amelia, 1810. The decease of this favourite daughter of George III., who sent him a ring in which was a braid of her hair, as a last token of remembrance, just before she expired, brought upon the declining monarch in 1811 a second visitation of his dreadful malady, and from this he never again recovered.

Reform Agitation, 1810. Throughout the latter period of this reign, there was a constant disposition amongst men of unsettled minds, to ascribe every evil in the national affairs to the want of a correct parliamentary representation. Meetings public and private were constantly held to discuss the grievances of the people; and in 1794 Mr. Horne Tooke, a clergyman who had thrown aside his gown, and a Mr. Hardy were tried on this account, for high treason, but acquitted. Sir Francis Burdett afterwards took up the same cause, and was frequently seen haranguing vast multitudes of persons in the open streets; and in 1818 was sent to the Tower for a libel

on the house of commons, not however without a conflict between the military and mob. Mr. Cobbett, author of a cheap political register, and afterwards a member of the house, ceased not to write and speak publicly on the same question: he also in 1810 was convicted of a libel, fined 1000*l.*, and imprisoned two years in Newgate. Pursuing the same course, Mr. Hunt, a Wiltshire farmer, became the idol of the populace, and was returned member for Preston; and in 1819, in consequence of assembling a meeting at Manchester, which was dispersed by the yeomanry-cavalry with loss of life, he was sentenced to imprisonment, and closed his career as a vender of blacking. Another reform advocate, Major Cartwright, was long considered a *magnus Apollo* by the vulgar; and was occasionally called before the magistracy, and required to abstain from reform agitation. To the honour of Sir Francis Burdett it must be stated, he retired, when the Reform Bill had passed, from the ranks of the popular leaders, declaring that, as reform had been carried, his object was attained; a secession which was greeted with every imaginable mark of reprobation by his former colleagues.

Murders of the Families of Marr and Williamson. In December 1811 were perpetrated, in the same part of London, two of the most dreadful murders on record, and without any proved discovery of the assassins. Mr. Marr, a tradesman of Ratcliffe highway, having sent his servant-girl out at twelve at night to purchase oysters, was found, on the girl's return in a quarter of an hour, lying on the floor of his shop with his brains beaten out, together with his wife and the shop-boy. An infant in the cradle had its throat cut from ear to ear. Twelve nights after this event, John Turner, a lodger in one Williamson's public-house in Ratcliff, escaped from the house by sheets tied together, and informed a watchman that he had just seen a man standing over the landlady's murdered body in the tap-room.

The house was accordingly forced open, and not only was Mrs. Williamson found horribly butchered, but her husband also, and their maid-servant, Bridget Harrington. As one Williams, taken up upon suspicion, hanged himself while in prison, it was presumed that he had been the chief actor in both these tragedies: but further evidence was in no way obtained. Such was the horror and alarm excited by these un-English slaughters throughout the metropolis, that numerous shopkeepers dreaded, for some time afterwards, lest the approach of night should introduce a murderer to their houses unobserved.

The Regency Question settled, 1811.

In consequence of the lamentable illness of his parent, the prince of Wales was unanimously declared regent, with nearly all the kingly powers.

The Great Comet, 1811. After one of the hottest summers on record, a most brilliant comet appeared, and was at its highest splendour in September. The length of its tail, according to Herschel, was upwards of one hundred millions of miles, and its greatest breadth fifteen millions of miles. Its period, according to Bessel, is 3383 years.

Assassination of Mr. Perceval, 1812.

As Mr. Spencer Perceval, the prime minister, was entering the lobby of the house of commons, a person named Bellingham fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast. Mr. Perceval uttered a faint exclamation, staggered a few paces, and fell on his face. He was immediately conveyed into the speaker's apartment; but before he reached it, life had departed. In the scene of confusion which ensued, the murderer might have escaped; but, instead of attempting to quit the place, he deliberately sat down, and avowed the horrid deed. He stated that he had been refused redress by the ministry, after acting in a diplomatic matter with Russia; and he was executed for his offence, evincing no signs of remorse to the last.

The Luddite Riots, 1814. An alarming disposition to riot, having for its object the destruction of all machinery used by the great manufacturers, prevailed in the hosiery district of Nottinghamshire, throughout this and succeeding years, extending at length over Cheshire, Lancashire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire. The numbers and audacity of the rioters, the systematic plans upon which they acted, and the weapons with which many of them were provided, rendered them truly formidable, not only to the master manufacturers whose frames and other machinery they demolished, but also to persons not concerned in the fray. The leaders of these disturbances, who affected to act under a general Ludd, were found to be of the lowest order of people; and after several of the most guilty had been executed at Derby and elsewhere, tranquillity was in a great measure restored, 1817.

A severe Frost, 1814, in January, enabled a fair to be held on the river Thames, between London and Blackfriars bridges. The river remained nearly six weeks in this state.

The Southcott Imposture, 1814. Johanna Southcott, of mean parentage in the west of England, declared herself 1810 to be the mother of the promised Shiloh, whose speedy advent she confidently predicted. Although in the highest degree illiterate, she scribbled much unintelligible nonsense as prophecy, and for a while carried on a lucrative trade in the sale of seals, which were, under certain conditions, to secure the salvation of the purchasers. She also constituted one Tozer, a fanatical preacher, her high-priest, and gave him characteristic attire. It is melancholy to reflect that more than 100,000 persons became her registered proselytes! A cradle of the most costly materials was provided at a fashionable upholsterer's in London, for the reception of the miraculous babe; but on a sudden, the prophetess herself began to have misgivings, declaring that, if deceived,

she had been the sport of some spirit either good or evil; and in December, 1814, she died. Her deluded followers, distinguished among whom was Mr. Sharpe, the talented engraver, long and confidently expected her resurrection from the grave: some still live, it is said, and are yet looking forward to the certain accomplishment of the birth. As Chesterfield said in summing up Bolingbroke's character, we may well exclaim, 'Alas, poor human nature!'

The Royal Visit, 1814, of the emperor of Russia and king of Prussia to England, where they were splendidly entertained for some weeks by the Prince Regent. The celebrated general Blücher, the Cossack hetman Platoff, and others who had been engaged in the subjugation of Napoleon, accompanied them. A general thanksgiving for the conclusion of so protracted a war took place July 7; on which occasion the royal party attended divine service at St. Paul's.

Death of the Princess Charlotte, 1817. This only child of the Prince Regent, and heiress to the throne, had been espoused to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg, 1816; and in the following year she died, after giving birth to a still-born son, November 6. Perhaps no country ever so simultaneously, and in such unequivocal ways, displayed its grief for the loss of one of a royal house, whether parent or child. As the decease of her royal highness was likely, through the defect of issue amongst the other members of the family, to throw the succession to the crown ultimately into the other or elder branch of the house of Brunswick, the brothers and sisters of the regent married hereupon, and thus secured the right to their own, the younger branch.

Spafields Rioters, 1817. In December 1816, a meeting had been convened in Spafields, in the suburbs of London, by Watson, Thistlewood, Preston, and Hooper, at which Mr. Hunt also attended, ostensibly with a view to petition the regent for relief: an immense

concourse of the lower classes assembled, and after hearing the harangues of Watson and other demagogues, a part of the populace entered the city, and seized the fire-arms there exposed to sale. A gentleman named Platt, on remonstrating with the mob that had entered a gunsmith's shop on Snow-hill, was shot; and there is no calculating the amount of mischief that would have ensued, had not the magistrates and military acted most promptly. In 1817 the four leaders were tried for high treason; and the unenviable task of pleading for their lives fell to the lot of Sir Charles Wetherell, who, with his usual eloquence, legal acumen, and accurate knowledge of history, after severely lashing them, obtained their acquittal.

Private British Beneficence. Perhaps there is no country in the world that can be said like our own to put in practice so fully and so faithfully the injunction of the Saviour of mankind, 'Do not your alms before men, to be seen by them.' As nations, for the virtues and for the crimes of the individuals which compose them, can only be rewarded or punished in their collective state, and in a temporal way, it is not going too far to express an opinion that Britain, for the unexamplified private and silent beneficence of the rich to the poor, far exceeding in sterling value the relief afforded by more obvious channels, has been favoured by a gracious Providence, throughout a reign alike remarkable for its extension and its political struggles, by not only an exemption from the horrors of intestine war, but by its rise in the scale of nations. Illustrious in the annals of unostentatious charity during the rule of George III. is the name of John Thornton; and let every reader add to the list by calling to his recollection those who, within the scope of his own knowledge, have systematically, piously, and secretly shared the wealth with which God has blessed them, without regard to legal and compulsory alms giving, amongst their suffering brethren.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Death of Calas, 1762. John Calas, a protestant of Toulouse, had a son, a Roman catholic, who committed suicide. Without proof of any kind, the wretched parent was tortured, and then broken alive upon the wheel, on the ground of having murdered his child. Voltaire taking up the cause afterwards, a general conviction of the man's innocence spread throughout France; and the widow was pensioned, and every attempt made to restore peace of mind to the other survivors of the family.

Murder of Peter III. of Russia. This sovereign, grandson of Peter the Great, had endeavoured to reform his army and people, after the model of the heroic king of Prussia. But he wanted vigour and decision of character for so great a work; and in a week after being dethroned by his queen, Catherine, he was found dead, 1762.

Eruption of Vesuvius, 1769. The honourable Mr. Hamilton who saw it, thus writes: 'It is now known, that when water comes in contact with the iron and sulphur found to exist in the neighbourhood of all volcanoes, it produces a fire more or less violent, in proportion to the quantity of those substances. If their action cause a heaving in the earth's surface, like the waves of the sea, it is called an earthquake. When the fire rushes, however, with irresistible force, to find a passage, and bursts an opening for itself, it is then a volcano. Vesuvius was quiet till March, when it began to throw up stones from time to time. In April the throws were more frequent; and, at night, the smoke which hung over its mouth was tinged by the reflection of the fire within. On the 12th of September, the lava began to flow down the sides of the mountain: and by this time the throws were much more frequent, and the red-hot stones went above 1000 feet high; so as to take up ten seconds in their fall. The lava continued to run in small streams, till

the 8th of October; and on the 19th, at seven in the morning, a thick black smoke began to issue from the mountain, in the midst of which, at short intervals, a volley of great stones was shot up to an immense height. The column of smoke, after having mounted an extraordinary height, bent with the wind towards Capræ, and reached over that island, twenty-eight miles from Vesuvius. Before eight o'clock on the same morning, the mountain had opened a mouth without noise, about one hundred yards lower than the ancient crater, towards the mount di Somma; and as soon as the lava had vent, the smoke no longer came out with violence from the top.

As I imagined there would be now no danger in approaching the mountain, I went up, accompanied by one person, and was making my observations, when on a sudden, about noon, I heard a violent noise within the mountain, and at about a quarter of a mile distant, the mountain split; and with much noise, a fountain of liquid fire shot up from this new mouth, and like a torrent, rolled on directly towards us. The earth shook, the pumice-stones fell thick upon us, and clouds of black smoke and ashes caused an almost total darkness; the explosions from the top of the mountain were much louder than any thunder, and the smell of the sulphur was horribly offensive. My guide, alarmed, took to his heels: and I being obliged to follow, we ran nearly three miles without stopping. As the earth continued to shake under our feet, I was apprehensive of the opening of a fresh mouth, or of the fall of the rocks off Somma, either of which might have cut off our retreat. Having reached my home, I found my family in great alarm, at the continual and violent explosions; so that we removed from our villa to Naples. In my way thither, I observed that the lava had covered three miles of the very road along which I had retreated; and I

have since heard that its depth was sixty or seventy feet, and in some places nearly two miles broad.

The confusion at Naples that night cannot be described; all the churches were open, and crowded with terrified people. On the 20th the smoke and ashes of the volcano spread every where over the city, and even reached ships sixty miles distant at sea; and the sun appeared as through a thick fog. The thundering noise of the mountain began with more violence on the 22d than on the preceding days; insomuch that the oldest men declared they had never heard the like; but on the 24th the lava ceased running, when its length, from the spot where it broke out to its extremity, was found to be six miles; in some places two miles broad, and in most seventy feet deep. Having entered a hollow way, not less than 200 feet deep and 100 broad, it speedily filled it up. On the 25th small ashes fell all day at Naples; and a vast column of black smoke issued from the crater, accompanied by continual flashes of forked lightning. On the 27th there were no signs of eruption whatever.

The Sand Floods of Arabia, 1769. Mr. Bruce thus describes one which he witnessed in Arabia this year: 'At one o'clock we alighted among some acacia-trees, and were here surprised and terrified by a sight surely one of the most magnificent in the world. In that vast expanse of desert, we saw a number of prodigious pillars of sand at different distances, at times moving with great celerity, at others stalking on with a majestic slowness: at intervals, we thought they were coming in a few minutes to overwhelm us; and small quantities of sand did actually more than once reach us. Again they would retreat, so as to be almost out of sight, their tops reaching to the very clouds. The tops often separated from the bodies; and these once disjoined, dispersed in the air, and did not appear more. Sometimes they were broken near the middle, as if struck by a large cannon-shot. About noon they began to advance with con-

siderable swiftness upon us, the wind being very strong at north. Eleven of them ranged alongside of us about the distance of three miles. The greatest diameter of the largest appeared to me at that distance as if it would measure ten feet. They retired from us with a wind at south-east, leaving an impression upon my mind to which I can give no name, though surely one ingredient in it was fear, with a considerable deal of wonder. It was in vain to think of flying; the swiftest horse, or safest sailing ship, could be of no use to carry us out of this danger; and the full persuasion of this rivetted us to the spot where we stood.' On the vast ocean, analogous to this, is the *waterspout*. A vessel, with a large crew and company, was recently sailing in the midst of the Atlantic, the wind blowing rather stiffly, when all on board were not less astonished than alarmed, to behold suddenly astern, driving forwards with fearful rapidity, an immense mountain of water, far higher than the mainmast, of proportionable bulk, and inconceivably majestic and terrible. 'Every body,' said lieutenant P—, 'rushed on deck, to behold this terrible phenomenon; the ship was instantly put out of her course to avoid being overwhelmed; and this mountain of water, at least 300 feet high, and which looked as if many square leagues of ocean had been gathered up in it, swept narmlessly past us, and pursued its onward course, apparently unbroken, and without diminution, till we lost sight of it in the distance.' Waterspouts eventually either ascend into the clouds in form of vapour, or fall, after breaking in the midst, as violent rain, upon the earth, or into the sea. Both the sand-flood and waterspout appear to be the result of electric action upon the air, and to be these generated whirlwind acting simply upon whatever comes by accident in its way. Of the *Simoons*, or hot wind of the African deserts, Mr. Bruce thus writes in the same year: 'At eleven o'clock, while we contemplated with great pleasure the rugged top of

Chigzre, where we hoped to solace ourselves with plenty of good water. Idris, our guide, cried out with a loud voice, 'Fall upon your faces, for here is the simoom!' I saw from the south-east, a haze come, in colour like the purple part of the rainbow, but not so compressed or thick. It did not occupy twenty yards in breadth, and was about twelve feet high from the ground. It was a kind of blush upon the air, and it moved very rapidly; for I scarce could turn to fall upon the ground with my head to the northward, when I felt the heat of its current upon my face. We all lay flat on the ground, as if dead, till Idris told us it had blown over. The meteor which I saw had indeed passed; but the light air that still blew was of a heat to threaten suffocation. For my part, I found distinctly in my breast that I had imbibed a part of it; nor was I free from an asthmatic sensation till I had been some months in Italy, nearly two years afterwards.'

Count Struensee's Execution, 1772.

He was physician to Christiern VII. king of Denmark; and being favoured by the queen (Caroline Matilda, daughter of Frederick, prince of Wales), gradually contrived to direct, in the king's name, the whole machine of government. A party of the nobles seized Struensee, count Brandt, and the queen; the two former were beheaded as traitors, after their hands had been cut off; and the queen was conveyed, with much indignity, to the castle of Cronenburg, whence a British fleet removed her to Celle, where she died 1776, leaving issue the present Danish monarch.

Fall and Partition of Poland, 1772.

Poland had been gradually declining in power since Charles XII.'s attack upon king Frederick Augustus, who, notwithstanding his deposition, died possessed of the crown 1764. As the throne was elective, count Poniatowski was chosen to succeed him as Stanislaus II., at a time when the nation was in a most divided state on the score of religion; the protestant

party, or *dissidents*, being deprived, at the instance of the clergy, who were catholics, of all their political rights. Various leagues, called *confederacies*, were formed amongst the dissidents; and at last, by the interference of Prussia and Russia, they obtained a restoration of their privileges. Having so effectually silenced their enemies, the dissidents now became highly factious; and political affairs formed a fresh ground of discontent. Their head was prince Radzivil, and the party, under the title of *the national confederacy of Poland*, amounted to 72,000 noblemen and gentlemen. A catholic association was hereupon formed in Podolia, taking the name of *the confederacy of Bar*; and the latter, conceiving the king to countenance the dissidents in private, organized a conspiracy to assassinate him, 1771. Accordingly, on the night of September 3d, Stanislaus was attacked, while on his way to the palace from prince Czartoriski's. His coachman being commanded to stop, and not doing so immediately, several shots were fired into the carriage; when the king, finding himself deserted by his attendants, opened the door of the vehicle, with the design of effecting his escape under shelter of the night, which was extremely dark. He had just alighted, when the assassins seized him by the hair, exclaiming in Polish, with horrible execrations, 'We have thee now, thy hour is come!' One of them discharged a pistol at him so very near, that he felt the heat of the flash; while another cut him across the head with a sabre, which penetrated to the bone. They then dragged the unfortunate monarch along the ground between their horses, at full gallop, through the streets of Warsaw; till finding that their victim had nearly lost his respiration, they set him on horseback, and redoubled their speed. On reaching the ditch which surrounds Warsaw, they obliged him to leap his horse over; but when the animal had broken his leg in the attempt, and thrown his rider into the

mire, they quickly mounted the king upon another horse, all covered as he was with dirt, and having crossed the ditch, began to rifle his person, tearing from his neck the order of the Black Eagle, with its diamond cross. He requested them to leave his handkerchief, which they consented to; and his tablets escaped their rapacity.

Only seven now remained with the king, of whom Kosinski was the chief. The night was exceedingly dark; they were absolutely ignorant of the way; and, as the horses could not keep their legs, they obliged the monarch, who had lost one of his shoes, to follow them on foot. Having continued to wander through the open meadows, without following any certain path, and without getting to any distance from Warsaw, they at length came into the road which led to a village called Burakow; upon which Stanislaus warned them not to enter it, because there were some Russians stationed there who might probably attempt to rescue him. Continuing their progress, therefore, through almost impassable lands, and ignorant of their way, the conspirators at length found themselves in the wood of Bielany, only a league distant from Warsaw. From the time they had passed the ditch, one or other of the party had repeatedly demanded of Kosinski, if it was not yet time to put the king to death; and these demands were reiterated in proportion to the obstacles and difficulties they encountered, till they were suddenly alarmed by a Russian patrol. Instantly holding council, four of them disappeared, carrying off the horses, and leaving Stanislaus with Kosinski and two others. A second Russian guard soon after challenged Kosinski; when the two who were with him fled, and the king remained alone with that rebel, both on foot. Stanislaus, exhausted with the fatigue he had undergone, implored his conductor to stop, and suffer him to take a moment's repose. Kosinski however refused, menacing him with his naked sabre; and they continued walking till they came to the door of the convent of Bielany. Kosinski here appeared so much agitated, that the king said to him, 'Let me enter the convent of Bielany, and do you provide for your own safety.' 'No,' replied Kosinski, 'I have sworn.' Entreaty, however, at length softened the heart of Kosinski; and the pair advanced to a neighbouring mill, to find a hiding-place. The miller, supposing them to be banditti, refused for half an hour to admit them; but when he did so, the king wrote a note to general Coccei, stating what had befallen him. Coccei instantly rode to the mill, followed by a detachment of the guards; where he found Kosinski at the door with his sabre drawn, and Stanislaus in a deep sleep, stretched on the ground, covered with the miller's cloak. Coccei immediately threw himself at the king's feet, calling him his sovereign, and kissing his hand, to the no small astonishment of the miller and his family, who instantly imitated the general's example, by throwing themselves on their knees. The king having reached Warsaw again in the coach of Coccei, about five in the morning, his wound was found not to be dangerous; and he soon recovered that and the other injuries he had received during this memorable night.

So extraordinary an escape is scarcely to be paralleled in history, and affords ample matter of wonder and surprise. When the particulars were known in Warsaw, every body flocked to the palace to kiss the hand, or even to touch the clothes, of the monarch; but neither his virtues nor his popularity could allay the factious spirit of the Poles, nor prevent the dismemberment of his kingdom. The partition of Poland was first projected by Frederick of Prussia. Polish or Western Prussia had long been an object of his ambition: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation rendered it highly valuable to that monarch; it lay between his German dominions and Eastern

Prussia, and while possessed by the Poles, cut off, at their will, all communication between them. That ambitious monarch, therefore, agreed with Russia and Austria to share the devoted kingdom between them; and though the courts of London and Paris remonstrated against the usurpation, a diet ratified the proceeding in April 1773. From that period to the present, constant attempts have been made by the Poles to recover their independence; but the Russians, who possess the largest division of the booty, have always been able to repress insurrection, and have usually taken care to visit every such exhibition with extreme severity. The origin of Poland is involved in obscurity. The common opinion is that one Lechus, a chieftain of a Sarmatian tribe, which had been long settled in Colchis, on the Euxine sea, entered Posnania, A.D. 550, and colonized the banks of the Warta and Elbe. He was succeeded by his nephew, Viscimer, who built the city of Wismar. After him came Gracus, a descendant of the Roman Gracchi, and he built the city of Cracow, so called from him. The title of duke of Polska (from Poln, the Slavonic for a hunting-country, which Poland ever was, abounding in forests), was now taken by the ruler of the colonists, and the country gradually acquired extent and importance. Duke Piastus (page 172), was the most celebrated of its early sovereigns.

The Order of Jesuits suppressed, 1773, by Clement XIV., on account of the constant political intriguing of its members.

France under Louis XVI. and XVII. 1774 to 1795. Louis XVI. was twenty years of age when he succeeded to the throne of his grandfather, and was married to Maria Antoinette, daughter of the emperor of Germany. His strict attention to religious duties, and his warm encouragement of the accustomed pageantry of the Romish church, were matters at once of disgust to a people accustomed, as the French had for some years been,

to deride every thing sacred. The minister Turgot, the only man then capable of managing the state, was violently dismissed by the parliament, just at the period of England's declaration of war for the part taken by France in the American rebellion; and the finances of the country soon became seriously affected. The account in the history of the awful Revolution which followed, explains how matters proceeded until the death of the king, 1793; his little son, Louis, is usually recorded as his successor, and the seventeenth of the name. This unhappy child was placed as a prisoner with one Simon, a shoemaker, a man of drunken and reprobate habits, who treated him with studied indignity, leaving him for a whole year without having his room cleansed, or his apparel changed. Covered with vermin and dirt, and denied every mode of exercise, he at length lost the use of his limbs; and in that debilitated condition was roused from sleep at regular intervals, by day and night, to answer the call of his unfeeling guards, 'Capet, are you there?' When scarcely ten years of age, death put a period to his sufferings, 1795.

The American War, 1775, commenced. A stamp-duty had been levied by Mr. Grenville in 1765 upon the British colonists in America; this was repealed soon after; but new duties were laid on paper, glass, tea, and other articles, which were all repealed save that on tea. The Americans, therefore, of thirteen provinces formed an union, and assuming the title of 'the United States,' signified their resolution to throw off their allegiance to the mother-country, unless they should be exempted, as heretofore, from calls to aid her with money, so long as they were unrepresented in the British parliament: delegates also were sent over to supplicate George III. for a change of measures. Their petition, however, was rejected; and when, in April 1775, general Gage detached a party to seize some military stores at Concord in New England, many were killed on both sides, and

the troops would probably have been all cut off, had not a fresh body arrived to their relief. Arms were upon this taken up in every quarter; an extensive paper currency was established, and all exportations were prohibited to places which still retained their attachment to England. The British ministry, on the other hand, increased the army, and sent over generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton. Such proceedings exasperated, but did not terrify, the insurgents; and on the 17th of June, 1775, a sanguinary action took place on Bunker's-hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 officers and men killed, and 800 wounded. George Washington was, about this time, appointed to the command of the American army; and two parties were sent against Canada, under general Montgomery and colonel Arnold, who boldly undertook to march by an untried route from Boston to Quebec. After innumerable difficulties, they reached the town; and attempting to take it by storm, Montgomery was killed and Arnold dangerously wounded. In 1776 Boston was evacuated by the king's troops, who then made a fruitless attack upon Charlestown, South Carolina; but soon after, general Howe drove the Americans out of Long-island, so that New York was abandoned to the British forces. Offers of reconciliation were now made by Howe, and rejected. Sir Peter Parker and general Clinton took Rhode-island, and the English also made some incursions into the Jerseys. But Washington soon after surprised and took prisoners above 900 of the Hessian troops in British pay, with several stands of arms. In September 1777, two actions occurred between the generals Howe and Washington, in both which the former had the advantage, and Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops.

A plan was now formed for invading the revolted colonies by way of Canada, and general Burgoyne undertook the expedition; but after

many difficulties, and some desperate actions, this army, consisting of 5600 men, was obliged to surrender to the American generals Gates and Arnold. An expedition up the North river was more successful, under Clinton and Vaughan; the former of whom soon after superseded general Howe as commander-in-chief; and after evacuating Philadelphia, he retreated with his army to New York, in June, 1778. In February 1779, the French entered into an alliance with the Americans; and as affairs wore so gloomy an aspect, commissioners were sent from England to treat of peace; but the terms were rejected with disdain. The war was then carried on with mutual animosity; hostilities were declared against France; Spain, and even Holland joined in the contest against Great Britain; and the war raged, with various success, in all quarters. The day was now hastily approaching in which Great Britain was to give up all hope of conquering America; for in September, 1781, Washington so surrounded earl Cornwallis's troops, that, on the 19th of October, he was obliged to give up himself and his whole army prisoners of war, fifteen hundred seamen, with a frigate and a number of transports being included in the surrender. Peace was at this time desired by every party; and the house of commons, on the 1st of March, 1782, resolved that all further attempts to reduce the Americans by force, would be injurious to the true interests of Great Britain.

Hurricane of the West Indies, 1776. This was the most terrible visitation of the kind on record, and appears to have reached not only to every island of the West Indies, but to the mainland of both North and South America. These destructive phenomena are now believed to arise from electricity, though the manner in which the fluid acts is by no means known: even the most gentle gales of wind are presumed to be produced from the same cause. The ruin and desolation accompanying a hurricane cannot ac-

curely be described. Like fire, the wind's resistless force consumes every thing in its track, in the most terrible and rapid manner. The sky is suddenly overcast and wild; the sea rises at once from a profound calm into mountains; the wind rages and roars like the noise of cannon; the rain descends in a deluge; the roofs of houses are carried to vast distances from their walls, and large trees are torn up by the roots, and hurled aloft in the air; while terror and consternation seize upon and distract all animated creatures.

Rodney's Victory, 1782. On the 12th of April, admiral Rodney engaged the French fleet under count de Grasse, who, in conjunction with the Spaniards, had seized Minorca, together with Nevis and St. Christopher in the West Indies. The conflict took place near Guadaloupe, and lasted twelve hours; when four French ships were taken, including the admiral's, one was sunk, and one blew up. Sixteen more were captured some days afterwards, by admirals Hood and Barington.

Siege of Gibraltar, 1782. The Spaniards, in September, after long investing this fortress, began a vigorous attack upon it. General Elliot was in command, and spread ruin amongst the enemy's works: yet were the assailants determined to try their utmost, to overcome the impediments with which nature and art seemed to deride their efforts. The preparations, as well by land as by water, were prodigious; and ten floating batteries, built at an enormous expense, were much relied on. These, however, by an incessant fire of red-hot balls from the besieged, were set in flames, and all in succession blew up. The destruction of human lives was dreadful, notwithstanding the efforts made, as well by the British as the Spaniards, to rescue the men from the flames and water. The enemy had now no chance of reducing the place, but by intercepting the supplies coming from Great Britain; but in this also they were dis-

appointed; for in October, lord Howe, with admirable seamanship, threw in the complement of necessaries in full view of the hostile fleet.

Rise of the Jacobins, 1789. The first plotters against social order in France held their secret sittings at a Dominican convent in Paris; and as the Dominicans, or black friars, were called Jacobins, these unworthy successors obtained, in derision, the same appellation.

The French Revolution, 1789. The French people, after giving aid to the Americans in their revolt, were little inclined to obey the arbitrary commands of a government which had thus forced them into an acquaintance with liberty. Their country was on the eve of a national bankruptcy; and the parliament having demurred, when Louis XVI. issued an edict for a loan of three millions, that monarch was induced, 1789, to summon the assembly called the States-general, which had not met since 1614. Little benefit, however, resulted from this proceeding: a party, having the queen ostensibly at its head, overawed the tribunal, dismissed Necker the financier, and roused the military to keep watch, lest the states-general should exceed its legitimate range of power. The French guards, accordingly, under the plea of protecting the state, seized the great repository of arms at the *hôtel-des-invalides*; and, aided by the populace, invested the state-prison of the Bastille. After an obstinate contest, the place was taken, De Launay, the governor, being instantly murdered, and his head borne in triumph through the city. On the morning after this event, Louis attended the national assembly, without betraying any uneasiness: he lamented the disturbances which had occurred, disavowed all knowledge of any meditated attack on the deputies, and gave orders that the troops should quit the capital. From his ability, however, to effect the removal of the soldiers, he must have been, notwithstanding his declaration, under the influence of the

revolutionary party; and the fact is the more evident, when we notice the monarch's singular progress to Paris from Versailles, three days after the fall of the Bastille. In a plain dress, having only two carriages, and followed by a part of the national assembly on foot, he was met at the Sève by the marquis La Fayette, at the head of the Paris militia. Accompanied by 20,000 rabble, the procession entered the capital, amid shouts of 'Vive la nation!' M. Bailly, the mayor, saying, as he presented the keys to the monarch, 'Henry IV., when he received these keys, came to reconquer his people: we, however, have the happiness to reconquer our king.' The same officer, after this ambiguous compliment, presented him with the national cockade, and the bonnet-rouge, or cap of liberty, and when, having alighted from his carriage, he showed himself at a window of the palace with these badges of patriotism, cries of 'Vive le roi' resounded in all directions for the first time on that day.

The citizens now resolved on returning with the monarch to Versailles in the evening, with a greater degree of attention to the order of procession; and the king was apparently pleased with this display of attachment to his person. The indiscretion, however, of a party of officers, who, dining with their majesties on the 1st of October, (a few days after the visit to Paris), drank the health of the king, queen, and dauphin, with drawn swords, and distributed white cockades (the Bourbon emblem) to the crowd about the palace,—like the match applied to the mine,—kindled the actual flames of revolution in the capital. Exaggerated as the conduct of the officers was,—feasting, as they were reported to have done, in the most sumptuous manner, while the citizens of Paris were starving,—the populace was roused to acts of violence in an instant, at the mere call of an old fish-woman. Eight hundred females were soon on the road to Versailles to demand bread; while a band of the same amazons rushed into the

galleries of the national assembly, exclaiming that they had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The deputies, to allay the tumult, ordered an immediate supply of provisions to be distributed in the hall; while the crowd on the outside, seizing upon one of the horses of the guards, roasted it, and greedily devoured it. A deluge of rain closed that awful evening, and towards midnight tranquillity appeared to be restored. On the ensuing morning, Louis was again urged by a mob to visit the capital: the fish-women had burst into the chambers of the royal family, demanding food, and threatening violence if the king did not take steps to provide it. Followed by the usual crowds, therefore, the royal party once more entered Paris; and affairs proceeded somewhat more calmly, when the common people saw that the monarch felt an interest for them.

The only event of 1790, was the solemn ceremony, in the Champ de Mars, to celebrate the fall of the Bastille; at which Louis took the civic oath, in the presence of 40,000 spectators. The grand affair of 1791, was the attempted escape of the king with his family from France: they had reached Varennes before any one recognised the fugitives, when Drouet, a post-master, gave the alarm, and all were brought back to Paris. When we reflect upon the excited state of the French nation at the juncture, we can feel little surprise at the ill consequences of this flight to the royal cause. The threats too of foreign nations, and the welcome given to such of the high families as had taken refuge at their courts, increased the ferment still more: so that the wickedness of the mob at once displayed itself, when the sudden deaths of two of the marked opponents of French freedom, the emperor of Germany, and king of Sweden, were announced, in March 1792. But the government, such as it was, still took the lead, and declared war against the new emperor, Francis I.; the king of Prussia

thereon joined the Austrian monarch in a defiance, and the duke of Brunswick, as general of both armies, issued a manifesto, wherein he declared he would sack Paris, if the slightest outrage were offered to the king, queen, or royal family of France.

At midnight of the 9th of August the alarm-bell sounded in every department of that devoted capital: the palace of the Tuileries was attacked, the royal family had only time to escape to the hall of the national assembly, and a fierce battle commenced between a band of Marseillais, and the Swiss guard of the monarch. The latter defended themselves with great courage, but were at length overpowered; and a sanguinary massacre ensued. The national guard now joined the Marseillais in the work of destruction; and all the Swiss in the palace were most inhumanly butchered, though arranged on their knees, as their murderers approached them, to implore their mercy. A small party of seventeen, having taken refuge in the vestry-room of the chapel, and not having yet been engaged, imagined they might depend upon the clemency of the victors, if they surrendered at discretion. But they had no sooner laid down their arms and shouted, 'Vive la nation!' than they shared the fate of their companions. The defenceless pages and servants of the palace were all involved in one promiscuous massacre, and streams of blood were seen running from the roof to the foundation of the building. During the perpetration of these matchless enormities, the national assembly still proceeded, in its own phrase, 'to deliberate.' But its deliberations were no longer free. They were overawed by a clamorous multitude in the galleries, and by troops of ruffians without; who threatened the lives of those who dared to think, speak, or act, for themselves. The stoutest hearts were appalled; a series of decrees were hastily passed, declaring the executive power suspended, and the authority of Louis XVI. revoked; and inviting the people

to form a national convention, and meet on the 20th of the ensuing month, September. On the day after the massacre, the king and his family were conducted from the house of the assembly to the palace; and as the carriage passed the Place Vendôme, Gorsas, a violent jacobin, stopped its progress, while the statue of Louis XIV. was pulled down in the monarch's view.

Nothing more occurred of an alarming nature, until information was received of the duke of Brunswick's advance upon Verdun. The whole mob of Paris rose instantly *en masse*, September 2d; in a short space of time 137 clergy, who had been imprisoned in the convent of the Carmelites, were murdered in cold blood; every man, woman, and child in the prison of the Abbaye was butchered; the abbé Bardy, and the princess Lamballe, were decapitated and their heads carried on pikes through the streets; while the tenants of the common prisons were brought to a summary trial by the mere populace, and cut down, as each was declared guilty. On the instant that the National Assembly could obtain a quiet sitting, it decreed the abolition of royalty for ever, and the imprisonment of Louis Capet in the Temple. Almost all the members, when M. d'Herbois exultingly proposed the measure, rose as by one impulse; and waving their hats in the air, they shouted, 'we declare that royalty is abolished for ever!' A new era therefore commenced; and the 20th of September, 1792, was called the first day of the republic.

Meanwhile the French army under Custine was highly successful in Germany; and that under Dumouriez had completely subdued the Austrian Netherlands in November; but no foreign advantages appeared to satisfy the democrats, so long as the king was in existence. His death, therefore, was resolved on; and a day fixed whereon to examine his papers. The mayor of Paris took him from the Temple to the house of the Assembly on that day;

and when it was announced to the members that he had arrived, Barrère, the president, ordered him to be brought to the bar. An awful silence prevailed, while every eye was turned towards the door at which the fallen monarch was to enter. At length it was opened, and Louis, calm in demeanour, but pale, was ushered forward by the mayor. Great emotion was betrayed by many in the hall at this moment, many handkerchiefs were held to the eyes, and some seconds elapsed before Barrère, the president, spoke. He then said, 'Louis, you are accused of having committed various crimes to re-establish tyranny on the ruins of liberty; the national convention, therefore, has decreed that you shall be tried; and the members who compose it are to be your judges. You will hear the accusation read, after which you shall answer to the questions which shall be proposed. To this the king made no reply. The general act of accusation was then read; and a series of questions being put to him, some he answered in the affirmative, some in the negative, and some evasively; but his general replies were 'No;' or, 'I know nothing of it.' When the whole had been investigated, the president said, 'I have no other question to propose: have you any thing more to add in your defence?' 'I desire to have a copy of the accusation,' said the king, 'and of the papers on which it is founded; and to have a counsel of my own nomination.' Barrère informed him, 'that his two first requests were already decreed, and that the determination respecting the other would be made known to him in due time. When the king had retired, it was carried, after a tumultuous debate, that counsel should be allowed him: they accordingly spoke firmly in his defence, but all was of no avail, and he was declared guilty. The only question which was then pretended to be agitated, was the nature and degree of the punishment he deserved. On this occasion the duke of Orleans, who had now assumed the

name of Mr. Equality (*M. Egalité*) in the true spirit of jacobinism, voted for *death without restriction*: 'Influenced,' said he, 'by no consideration but that of performing my duty, and convinced that all who have conspired, or shall hereafter conspire, against the sovereignty of the people, deserve death, I vote for death!' One deputy, on seeing this personage anxious for the destruction of a member of his own family, started from his seat, struck his hands together, and exclaimed 'Ah! le scéléra!' Death, therefore, being recorded, it was put to the vote, whether the sentence should be executed in twenty-four hours, or longer delayed? when Robespierre and others were for the earliest period possible, Tallien observing, with diabolical irony, that to keep the unfortunate man in suspense, would be but to prolong his agony. The celebrated Tom Paine, however, who had been chosen a member of the assembly, hereupon rose, and argued strongly against any execution whatever. He concluded a lengthened speech by stating, 'that the king's death, instead of an act of justice, would appear to their allies, the Americans, in particular, an act of vengeance; and that if he were sufficiently master of the French language, he would, in their name, present a petition against the sentence.'

It was not until Saturday, the 19th of January, 1793, that the assembly finally decided on the day of execution, which was then announced to the king to be the following Monday. Meanwhile every indignity had been offered to the monarch, during his captivity in the Temple: he had been separated from the queen and his children; was constantly addressed as Mr. Veto (in derision of his former ability to annul the decrees of the national assembly); and had been compelled to put on the plainest attire. On learning that the hour of his death was fixed, and that he might see his family and friends, Louis sent for his confessor, M. Edgeworth de

Fermont; and it is impossible to do justice to the devout and heroic sentiments expressed by the king in this interesting conference;—above all, when he dwelt on the misfortunes of his country. After the conversation, Louis rose, saying, 'I must now go and see my family for the last time. This will be the severest trial of all. When that is over, I shall fix my mind solely on what concerns my salvation.' His interview with the queen and princesses on Sunday was affecting in the extreme, but allowed to be witnessed by all his guards through the glass panes of a door: it was no sooner over, than the monarch went to confession, and then retired to rest. From ten until five he enjoyed very tranquil sleep, and was then awakened, according to his desire, to receive the sacrament. At eight on the morning of January 21, 1793, Santerre came to conduct him to the place of execution; and, after passing a few minutes in private with his confessor, he came to the outer room, where Santerre was, and said, 'I am ready.'

The king walked through the court with a firm step, and entered the mayor's coach, followed by M. Edgeworth, a municipal officer, and two officers of the national guards. The king repeated the prayers for persons in the agonies of death, during the conveyance from the Temple to the Place de Louis XV.; and when the carriage stopped at the scaffold, said, 'Here we are, then.' He pulled off his coat, unbuttoned the neck of his shirt, and ascended the scaffold with steadiness; and after surveying, for a few moments, the immense multitude, he said with a loud voice, 'Frenchmen, I die innocent, I forgive all my enemies, and I wish that France'—when Santerre, who was on horseback near the scaffold, cried out, 'Sir, you come to die, and not to speak,' and made a signal for the drums to beat, and for the executioners to perform their office. When they attempted to tie his arms, he, for the first time, showed signs of indignation; but when

M. Edgeworth reminded him that the Saviour of mankind had allowed himself to be bound, he became passive as a lamb, and was placed under the guillotine. The confessor then kneeling with his face near to that of the king, pronounced aloud, 'Son of St. Louis, ascend to Heaven!' The blow was given, and M. Edgeworth's face was sprinkled with the blood. When the head fell, there was a cry of 'Vive la nation!' and when it was held up and declared to be that of a traitor king, 'Vive la république!' resounded through the crowds, which were immense beyond description. Some dipped their handkerchiefs in the blood; but the greater number, chilled with horror, escaped as fast as they could from the spot. The hair was sold in separate tresses at the foot of the scaffold; and the body was conveyed in a cart to St. Madelaine's churchyard, and there thrown into the same pit with those who had fallen in the insurrection of August 10th.

As the reign of terror had now commenced, and the French rulers had broken the treaty made with England and Holland respecting the opening of the Scheldt, the British nation joined the Dutch in their attempt to prevent the subjugation of their country, by sending over a force under the duke of York, and were seconded by the Austrians; but the defection of the French general Dumouriez did more for the allies than all their united exertions could effect. Meanwhile events were thickening in Paris. Factions, under the titles of Brissotins and Girondists, were opposed to the more destructive parties of the Jacobins and Mountain: the Mountain, amongst which were the regicides Robespierre and Marat, became triumphant, and Brissot and many Girondists were seized and imprisoned. Marat, however, the favourite of the Jacobins, was at the same moment stabbed by Charlotte Corday, a woman of a noble family, who had formed the resolution of travelling alone from Caen to Paris, to rid the world of a sanguinary

monster. He was in a warm bath, when, under the excuse of being in extreme distress, she was admitted to his presence. The celebrated general Custine was recalled, and guillotined; hundreds of distinguished republicans were in the same manner immolated; and upon the declaration of the union in the south of France, called Federate Republicanism, the streets of Lyons were actually made to flow with the blood of human victims. The danger of famine throughout France had never been so great as at this moment; and fresh tumults began to arise. The jacobinical rulers, however, stifled the cries of the starving populace, by cramming them into the prisons; and when the common receptacles were overloaded, every section and commune was ordered to fit up some additional strong building to receive the disaffected.

The queen's trial took place 15th of October, 1793; and throughout it, amidst the most aggravated mortification and wanton insult, under accusation for crimes of which she was altogether innocent, or could not commit (one was that of having tried to corrupt the morals of her own son), she submitted with a patience that became her sad condition, and answered with a spirit that marked her elevated mind. She retired from the hall, without uttering a word to the court or the people; and at four o'clock in the morning, was reconducted to her dungeon. At five, the drums beat to arms in every part of the city; its whole military force was soon in a state of preparation; cannon were planted in the squares, and at the extremities of the bridges; and at ten, numerous patrols passed through the streets. At half-past eleven the queen was brought out of the prison, and conducted in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair was entirely cut off from the back of her head, which was covered with a small white cap; she wore a white undress; her hands were tied behind her; and she sat with her back to the

horses. The executioner was seated on her right; and on the left was a constitutional priest. The cart was escorted by numerous detachments of horse and foot. An immense mob of people, in which the women appeared to predominate, crowded the streets, insulted the queen, and vociferated, 'Long live the republic!' She seldom cast her eyes upon the crowds, and regarded with indifference, if she at all regarded, the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the streets in double ranks. They who had seen her in the former part of her life, could not but observe the altered state of her countenance, and what a sad change sorrow had made in that abode of animation and beauty. Her spirit appeared perfectly calm, and she conversed with the priest, with an air of submission, but without the least appearance of dejection. She ascended the scaffold with much haste and seeming impatience, and after turning her eyes with emotion towards the gardens of the Tuileries, submitted to the guillotine. At half-past twelve her head was severed from her body, and the executioner exhibited it, all streaming with blood, to an inveterate and insatiable multitude. Thus perished, in the thirty-eighth year of her age, Maria Antoinette.

Brissot, and twenty-one other too moderate republicans, were then summarily tried, and guillotined, on the ground of having been opposed to the king's death. The factions in this degraded country were now diminished to two, designated *moderates* and *terrorists*: the latter, headed by Robespierre, were in full power; and the former were those who vainly endeavoured to restrain their fury. As the duke of Orleans, notwithstanding his assumption of an humbler name, was now a suspected personage, he also was brought before his judges, simply identified, and ordered for execution: he suffered by that same engine, to which he had so inhumanly condemned his relative and king. Bailly, the mayor of Paris, was the next vic-

tim; and an order was at the same juncture issued by Robespierre to imprison every English person then in France, and confiscate his, her, and their property. This measure was made to include the subjects of all nations having any close alliance with Great Britain; and no less than 50,000 houses of arrest were instantly filled with prisoners, both sexes and all grades being mingled in each room.

The year 1794 was ushered in with the edict to abolish the ancient method of computing time. This innovation was of a more serious nature than superficial observers might imagine; being intended to eradicate every trace of Christianity from the country. After this prelude, the authorities of Paris came in a few days to the convention, attended by the newly-made bishops and clergy, who, decorated with caps of liberty, renounced the sacerdotal office. They declared that the necessity of complying with the prejudices of the people, in order to teach them the moral virtues and social duties, had alone caused their acceptance of their religious functions; that now, abjuring the trade of superstition, they were resolved, instead of Christians, to become men; to own no temple but the sanctuary of the law; no divinity but liberty; no object of worship but their country; no gospel but the constitution. These and various other declarations were despatched to all the departments and municipalities, to perfect the work of the revolution; and the day of this event was mentioned in the calendar, as *the day of reason*. The *sans-culottes*, who, in consequence of these proceedings, considered themselves authorized to plunder the places of worship, divided with the convention large heaps of shrines, figures, and vessels, hitherto used in the offices of religion; and at Abbeville and other places, where the churches were still kept open, the priests were arrested and thrown into dungeons. Nor can the bishop of Moulins be passed by without re-

ceiving the execration he merits. This furious and atheistical fanatic, trampling on the cross and the mitre, assumed the pike and the cap of liberty, and from his pulpit preached the doctrine, big with horror, 'that death is an eternal sleep.'

Fabre d'Eglantine, the new calendarist, did not live to see six months of his new era run out; but was guillotined with Danton and others. On the plea that the farmers-general of the public revenue had become rich with the spoils of the people, Robespierre put thirty-four of them to death; and twenty millions sterling are said to have been gained by this diabolical proceeding. Meanwhile, the revolutionary troops, now a mere band of legalized robbers, entered each citizen's house, and wherever they found money, carried it off: if murmurs arose, a guillotine appeared in the rear of the division of the army. The officers in those expeditions, in writing from the country to their friends in Paris, would say, 'We have well sansculottized such and such a town; we have enlightened it to the amount of 200,000 livres, in *monnoy sonnante*, and cured sixty of the most diseased inhabitants of aching heads.' Meanwhile the activity of the guillotine was daily increasing; insomuch that, from ten and fifteen per day, the amount of executions had augmented to fifty and sixty, by the month of May.

On the 12th of that month, the princess Elizabeth, sister of the murdered king, was brought to trial. This noble-minded woman, disdaining any concession which might soften the cruelty of her judges, magnanimously replied to the first interrogatory of the court, 'What is your name?' 'My name is Elizabeth of France, and I am sister of the monarch you murdered, and aunt to the present king.' When charged with having encouraged her nephew in the hope of succeeding to his father's throne, she replied, 'I have conversed familiarly with that unfortunate child, who was dear to me on more than one account; and I gave

him all those consolations which appeared to me likely to reconcile him to the loss of those who had given him birth.' Without further interrogatory, she was condemned, and led to the scaffold.

Decadi was the only day, for months, in which the operation of the fatal axe was suspended; and, as the newspapers of that evening did not contain the accustomed list of victims, they were deemed proportionably dull by the Parisians. People looked over the names of the victims, as one would the arrivals at Bath or Brighton; and unless the readers were sufficiently conspicuous to be in danger, they perused them with little emotion. The day of doom to Robespierre, the atrocious author of these sanguinary scenes, was now at hand: he had no sooner got rid of Danton and five others, for expressing their fears that he would become a second Cromwell, than a conspiracy was formed amongst the remaining members of the convention, to cut him off. Tallien, his brother regicide, was amongst the first to denounce him from the tribune; and the whole assembly then cried, as with one voice, 'Down with the tyrant! down with the Cromwell!'

Robespierre, his brother, Couthon, St. Just, and Le Bas, were instantly put under arrest, and conveyed to separate prisons; but Robespierre being set free by the keeper of the Luxembourg, in the night, was conducted to the hall of the commune, where Henriot, commander of the national guard, Fleuriot, mayor of Paris, and others of his creatures, had assembled forces for his defence. This was the critical moment; but neither Henriot nor Robespierre himself, had sufficient spirit to head the mob, and lead it against the convention. While they deliberated, their opponents proceeded to action. A proclamation to the Parisians was made known by torch-light and beat of drum, in every quarter of the city. The rebels sent one out at the same time. It was proscription against proscription. The

officers with the respective proclamations passed each other in the street. Many of the guards of these parties were cut to pieces, or dreadfully wounded by the sabres of each other. On the Place de Grève, both proclamations were read at one time; that of Robespierre asserting that a majority of the convention had turned traitors, and would soon make every patriot answer for the smallest indiscretion, while that of the convention called on every good citizen to sustain the national representation, menaced as it was by rebels and faithless magistrates. The latter document won the people; and the military, 10,000 in force, and who had been called together to support Robespierre, proceeding to the Maison de Ville, where the impeached members were haranguing, summoned all within to surrender. The outlawed deputies, struck with despair at this unexpected turn of affairs, began to lay violent hands on themselves; so that, when the gendarmes entered the building, they found Robespierre with one side of his face blown away by a pistol-shot, and Couthon severely wounded by a carving-knife, which he still held in his hand. Three others had leaped out of a two-pair-of-stairs window, and were miserably bruised; but all being taken, to the number of eleven, they were hurried off on sledges to the place of execution, attended by an astonishing concourse of people. The crowd forced Robespierre to hold up his head, all bleeding as it was, as he passed by the church of St. Madeleine; and when the guillotine severed it from his body, the applauses of the people are said to have lasted fifteen minutes.

The convention next chastised the guilty members of the municipality who had aided the rebels; and no less than 128 magistrates of Paris were put to death. Above 4000 persons, who had specific charges against them, were released from prison; but Lebon, the commissioner of Arras, who had guillotined 300 of the inhabitants without proof of their crimi-

nality, was executed, as also was Carrier, the sanguinary commissioner of Nantes. The year 1794 closed with these proceedings, and the attempts of the convention to crush the jacobin party; and the year 1795 opened with the victories of the republican army under Pichegru, in Holland. The stadtholder fled to England; and Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph on the 20th of January. But the comparative tranquillity produced by the last step of the convention, was on the point of being disturbed in the most terrific manner in May, on account of the low rate of pay obtained by labourers and artisans. The convention was sitting on the 19th of that month, when 100,000 citizens took up arms, and a band of women rushed into the hall, with loud cries of 'Bread! and the convention of 1793!' The military were called in, when the mob in their fury had killed one of the members, on the spot; the soldiers fired, and the former scenes of bleeding heads carried on poles were exhibited in every street of the capital. Some of the deputies themselves being afterwards accused of having organized this insurrection, they, in the true spirit of the new French principles, retired into an apartment of the house of assembly, and stabbed themselves. The son of the late king, known in history as Louis XVII., having died in June, the French rulers displayed a degree of returning sympathy, by exchanging the young sister of that prince (the present ex-queen of France), for several deputies and ambassadors, who had been delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez. Treaties having been entered into with Prussia and Spain, the new French constitution was sworn to in September. By this the executive power was henceforth lodged in five directors, and the legislative in two councils, that of ancients, like peers, and that of 500, like commons.

The year 1796 commenced with the entrance of Napoleon Buonaparte, an

obscure attaché of the republican army upon his extraordinary career. He first came into notice at the battle of Monte Notte, and by that victory forced the king of Sardinia to cede Savoy to France. The last royalist insurrection in the south of France was, just at the same juncture, crushed. Towards the close of 1795, an expedition had been sent from England to aid the party called Chouans, who were in arms against the republic; and the force employed consisted chiefly of French emigrants, under the command of the count de Sombreuil. They landed in Quiberon bay, and took the fort of the same name; but soon after experienced a melancholy reverse, the fort being surprised by the republicans under general Hoche, who killed or made prisoners 10,000 emigrants, Chouans, and English, found there. The count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol, with the clergy who accompanied him, and other prisoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death; and before April, the Chouans, with their chiefs, Charette and Stoffet, were exterminated. In March, violent disputes arose between that party in the two councils which supported the Directory, or ministry, and that which, for opposing the directory, obtained the title of *anti-directorial*; and the latter getting the better, its members not only accused the directory of extravagance, and bad foreign policy, but, secretly instigated by two of the directory themselves, Carnot and Barthelemy, plotted an insurrection. The other three in the directory, aided by the army, commanded the alarm-guns to be fired on a sudden, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded by a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of these orders, repaired to the barracks; and being readily supported by the soldiers, he entered the hall of the 500, and seized Pichegru, the president. Carnot took advantage of the tumult, and fled; but Barthelemy calmly awaited the storm, and with Pichegru, and a

number of deputies, was transported to Cayenne.

The power of the directory, or rather of the party of Barras therein, being rendered complete by this victory over the councils, it projected new schemes of conquest to employ the armies. A French general having been killed during a tumult in Rome, the French soldiers deposed the pope, and erected what they called the Roman republic; and Switzerland being in like manner transformed into a polyarchy, called the Helvetic Confederacy, the government of both was vested in the French officers and their partisans.

In the beginning of 1798, peace was concluded between Austria and France, and Buonaparte returned to Paris. Not being able to disband its vastly numerous troops, the directory permitted an invasion of England to be now talked of, merely, it would seem, to employ the public mind; since, after an immense show of preparation, a large fleet sailed with troops, under Buonaparte's command, for Malta, and thence crossed to Egypt. The proceedings of the French in Egypt are traced in the memoir of Napoleon, who, at the secret call of the abbé Siéyes, returned to Paris in August 1799, and speedily put an end to the revolutionary government.

Opening of the Scheldt, 1792. No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munster, 1648, was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty had been confirmed to the Dutch by subsequent agreements, and those guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regarded the measure as injurious to their trade, since Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam; and the infraction formed one of the reasons which induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

Assassination of Gustavus III., 1792.

This king effected a revolution in Sweden without bloodshed, when twenty-six years of age, in consequence of a party of his senators claiming rule over him, as if he were weak in intellect. The wisest regulations followed the change: torture was abolished, commerce made to flourish, agriculture patronized, and the laws administered with impartiality and despatch. On the breaking out of the French revolution, he joined those nations which attempted to crush it; but a conspiracy amongst his nobles, on that account, frustrated his benevolent designs, and Ankerstrom, a disbanded officer, who had received many favours from the monarch, shot him at a masked ball, 1792.

The New French Calendar, 1793. Fabre d'Eglantine made the year to commence on the 22d of September (the autumnal equinox), a period inconsistent with the laws of nature, the sun being then retrograde. The object of the change was an impious attempt to obliterate every allusion to the deity, by abolishing the Sabbath from the calendar. As all important facts during the revolution, and for some time after, were recorded by this new nomenclature, it may be useful to show how it designated the ancient division of months. *Autumn*, Vendémiaire (vintage), September 22; *Brumaire* (foggy), October 22; *Frimaire* (frosty), November 21; *Winter*, Nivôse (snowy), December 21; *Pluviose* (rainy), January 20; *Ventose* (windy), February 19; *Spring*, Germinal (budding), March 21; *Floreal* (flowery), April 20; *Prairial* (hay-harvest), May 20; *Summer*, Messidor (corn-harvest), June 19; *Thermidor* (hot), July 19; *Fructidor* (fruit), August 18. Every month was to consist of thirty days, and those days were divided into decades (or weeks of ten days): as this, however, would give the year only 360 days, five were added answering to those of our September, from the 17th to the 21st; and in leap-year a sixth was appended. The decades,

thirty-six in number, were named distinctively in numerical order ; the first being Primidi, the second Duodi, and so on ; and each so named ten days was devoted to some virtue, grace, or moral principle ; the first to Nature and the Supreme Being, the second to the human race, the third to the French people, the sixth to liberty and equality, the tenth to the hatred of tyrants, the twenty-sixth to filial piety, and so on. The five supplementary days were called Sans-culottides, out of respect to the unclad revolutionary mob, called Septembrizers ; and were kept as days of joy. A large party in the state still persisted in observing the Sunday, and many in trade shut their shops on that day : such persons were called Dominicans, and the observers of the new code Decadists, from their calling every tenth day as well as the tenth decade, *decadi*.

Federative Republicanism, 1793. This was a formidable union of three cities in the south of France, Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon, to resist the progress of the revolution. The republican armies first invested Lyons, where 200 jacobins had been put to death by aristocratic tribunals ; and where a force of 30,000 men was in arms, and on the point of marching to Paris. The siege commenced on the 19th of September, and continued till the 9th of October. The powers of description are inadequate to the horrors which succeeded the surrender of this city. Above 2000 persons were put to death by the guillotine and musket, independently of the numbers which had been slain in the course of the siege ; making the total loss to the country at least 15,000. As the opulent inhabitants had been the chief promoters of the union, the confiscations of their property amounted to the enormous sum of 150 millions sterling. The number of the condemned was so great, that they were bound together in fifties and sixties, and blown to pieces by cannon loaded with grape-shot.

The Marseillais opened their gates

on the approach of the republican army, and submitted ; but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood, who took possession of the city and shipping, in the name of Louis XVII. throwing into the place a mixed force of all nations, amounting to 18,000 men. Toulon was at length invested ; and on the 30th of November, the garrison having made a vigorous sortie, in order to destroy some batteries which the enemy were erecting, the French troops were surprised, and fled. The allies, too much elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force sent to cover their retreat ; and in the conflict which ensued, nearly 1000 of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or captured. On the night of December 19th, the allies and part of the inhabitants (having previously set fire to the town and shipping) evacuated the place.

The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants ; who crowded to the shores, and demanded the protection promised them by the British. Though every effort was made to receive them on board the ships, thousands were left to fall into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many made a vain attempt to swim to the fleet, while some were seen to shoot themselves in despair on the beach. The flames, meanwhile, were seen spreading in every direction, and the ships that had been set on fire, threatened to destroy, by their sudden explosion, every thing around them. The scene on board the fleet was scarcely less dreadful. Loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations ; with aged men and infants, as well as women ; with the sick from all the hospitals, and the mangled soldiers from the posts just deserted, their wounds still undressed ; nothing could equal the horrors of the spectacle, except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony that filled the ear, for hus-

bands, fathers, and children, left on shore to perish.

Insurrection of Kosciusko, 1794. Thaddeus Kosciusko, a Pole of noble descent, after acting as adjutant to Washington in the American rebellion, took a leading part in the opposition to Russian influence in Poland. He had retired to Leipsic, finding his efforts to rouse his countrymen unavailing, when a large party in the nation called on him to head its army against the northern oppressor. Endued with the power of a Roman dictator, he was successful against the Russians; but when Prussia had swelled the ranks of his enemies, his army was thoroughly routed, and himself taken prisoner. Paul I., on his accession as czar, set him at liberty; and after passing some years in America and France (refusing Napoleon's offers to organize a plan for the subjection of Poland), he died in Switzerland, 1817.

The La Vendée Royalists suppressed, 1795. When the revolution broke out, an army in La Vendée, part of the western province of Poitou, was organized in support of Louis, by native Frenchmen. The marquis de Bonchamps took the command, and made himself master of Fontenai, Saumur, Angers, and other towns; but in endeavouring to effect the passage of the Loire, 1795, he was assailed by a superior republican force, and received a mortal wound. He died in the arms of his wife, who accompanied his camp, and afterwards wrote an interesting account of the Vendean war, and of her own narrow escape; seized, as she and her children were at this juncture, with virulent smallpox. The Vendée royalists never were able to make head again after this event.

The Oligarchy of Venice dissolved, 1797. A tumult having taken place in Venice, when filled with French troops, and a number of those soldiers being killed, the French army, on its return from Vienna, supplanted the ancient government by a municipality, and proposed to annex the city and

territory to the new Cisalpine republic. But the treaty of peace with the emperor not being yet signed, on account of the French having refused to restore Mantua, as it was stipulated they should do in the preliminaries, they ceded Venice to Germany, in lieu of Mantua.

Malta captured by the British from France, 1800; and it was respecting the detention of this important little island, that the war with Buonaparte was resumed, after the peace of Amiens.

The Emperor Paul assassinated, 1801. Paul was of a singularly weak and vacillating mind. In 1799, he sent a powerful army, under the command of Suwarrow, which, in conjunction with the Austrians, drove the French almost entirely out of Italy, and entered Switzerland; while he despatched a considerable force to act with the English upon the French in Holland. But, suddenly, he recalled his forces from Switzerland, seized the English ships in his ports, entered into alliance with France, and excited a formidable union of the maritime powers of the north against the naval interests of Great Britain. The league in question, however, was completely dissolved by the glorious battle of Copenhagen; and the czar's frantic acts having roused the indignation of his principal nobles, he was assassinated.

Revolt at St. Domingo, 1803. The fickle policy of the French government, 1791, caused violent commotions amongst the negro population of this island, which ended in rebellion, and Toussaint l'Ouverture, and Jean d'Essalines, both born in slavery, headed troops against general Leclerc; but being obliged to come to terms, the former was treacherously seized and thrown into prison, where he died. D'Essalines, upon this, roused the people to expel the French; when Rochambeau, who had succeeded Leclerc in command, was glad to surrender to the British, that he might escape the vengeance of the blacks. The colony was solemnly declared for ever separated from the dominion of France,

its original name of Hayti restored, and d'Essalines chosen governor for life. In 1804 the same person was exalted to the rank of Emperor of Hayti; but in 1806 he was assassinated by a party under Christophe, a relation of Tous-saint, who was declared his successor.

Napoleon crowned Emperor of France, 1804. (See his life.)

The Empire of Austria first so determined, 1806, by the abdication on the part of the emperor of Germany, Francis II. The Confederation, of which Austria is the principal member, has from this period regulated the affairs of Germany.

Spain under Charles III. and IV. 1759 to 1808. Ferdinand VI. having died without issue, his brother, whom he had placed on the throne of Sicily, succeeded him as Charles III., leaving the Sicilian crown to his son Ferdinand. Anxious to support the family compact of the house of Bourbon, Ferdinand leagued with France on all occasions, until the English seized the Spanish port of Havannah, in Cuba, and thereby commanded the passage of his plate-fleet. Terms were in consequence agreed upon between England and Spain; and Ferdinand engaged in an expedition against Algiers, 1775, which terminated in a complete defeat, his army, 24,000 strong, being driven back to its ships with an immense loss of officers and men. When the British colonies of America revolted, and France had taken part with them, the Spaniards also commenced hostilities against Great Britain, retook Minorca, and laid siege to Gibraltar, then governed by general Eliot 1782. It is not surprising that the possession of this first fortress of their country by a foreign state should be a constant source of mortification to the Spanish nation. Their efforts to obtain it, however, were ineffectual, though they invested it both by sea and land. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from their land batteries, and from the various works of the garrison in return, exhibited a scene, to which neither the descriptive powers of the pen nor

the pencil could do sufficient justice. At length the red-hot balls from the garrison set fire to the Spanish fleet: the admiral's ship was almost the first seen in flames, and while rockets were ascending in every direction as signals of distress, vessel after vessel blew up, and the British were soon after alone occupied in attempting to rescue from a watery grave, or from the burning wrecks, those who were now incapable of acting as enemies. Peace was made with England 1783; and Charles was from that period, until his death in 1788, engaged in counteracting the designs of a republican party, which had caught the spirit of the French revolution. *Charles IV.*, on succeeding his father, regarded French affairs with equal jealousy, and after the murder of Louis XVI. commenced war with the French republic. His arms, however, were constantly unsuccessful; and when St. Sebastian, and the fort of Bellegarde, followed by Bilbao, had fallen, the affrighted king made an alliance with his enemies, 1795. Being now entirely under the dominion of France, Charles commenced war with England, but soon saw his fleet beaten off cape St. Vincent by Sir John Jervis. The chief minister of Charles was Manuel Godoy, who, from being an obscure garde-du-corps, was in one year, 1792, made a lieutenant-general, an admiral, a duke, and a knight of the Golden Fleece. He married the king's own niece, and was created prince of the peace. Through his influence with the queen, who might be said to rule the whole nation with Godoy, Charles was induced to treat his own son, the prince of Asturias, as a weakly youth, and unfit to succeed to the throne; and that infante (afterwards Ferdinand VII.) was accordingly kept in a state of seclusion. The prince of Asturias, however, was the favourite of the people; and when, in 1807, the Spaniards reflected upon the destruction of their navy through Godoy's attachment to France, upon the loss of their North American settlements, which had been bestowed on that treacherous power

for its protection, and upon the probable secession of their South American colonies, then in a state of insurrection, they resolved on crushing, if possible, the power of the minister. Prince Ferdinand, urged by injudicious friends, hereupon secretly addressed a letter to Napoleon, complaining of his family's and country's distresses, which he affirmed to arise from the thralldom in which both were held by Godoy, requesting his aid to displace the favourite, and putting himself under the emperor's protection. Godoy being apprized of the affair, hastened to king Charles, and having assured him that his son Ferdinand was conspiring both against his crown and his life, had him seized, and placed in close confinement. Napoleon, however, lost no time in sending troops into the peninsula, under the pretence of marching against Portugal; and when he had surprised and taken several Spanish fortresses, the court, in alarm, resolved on retiring to the colony of Mexico. March 17th, 1808, was fixed for the departure; and the carriages having drawn up at the palace at ten at night, a mutiny commenced amongst the soldiery, Godoy was sought for and ultimately apprehended, and the spirited conduct of the brothers Ferdinand and Carlos alone saved that minister's life, little as he expected protection at their hands. The retreat was now abandoned; and Charles, observing the popularity of his son, abdicated in his favour, and on the 19th of March the latter assumed the title of Ferdinand VII. This arrangement, however, did not suit Napoleon, who contrived, under specious pretexts, to draw father and son to Bayonne, and obliged both to resign the Spanish crown in his favour. Ferdinand and his brother, Don Carlos, were conveyed in honourable custody to Talleyrand's seat at Valençay, where they remained till Napoleon, induced by his reverses in Spain and Germany, restored the former to his throne, 1814, with the proviso that he should drive the English from the Pe-

insula. Charles IV. died at Rome, 1819.

The Peninsular War, 1808. The Portuguese nation having solicited the aid of the English against their French invaders, Sir Arthur Wellesley, son of the earl of Mornington, who had commenced his military career in India, was sent to oppose the force under Junot. He landed in Mondego bay, August the 1st, and soon commenced active operations. After a slight affair at Rolica, a severe battle was fought at Vimiera, which terminated in a complete defeat of the enemy, with the loss of 3000 men. On the day succeeding the victory, Sir Hew Dalrymple arrived from Gibraltar to take his post of commander-in-chief, and censured Sir Arthur, who was only second in command, for acting without his orders; he also immediately agreed with Junot for a cessation of hostilities, and signed a convention at Cintra, by the provisions of which the French were, instead of being made prisoners of war, to be transported to France, at the cost of the English nation, loaded as they were with the property of the spoliated Portuguese. It was not long before a formal annunciation of king George's disapprobation was forwarded to Sir Hew, and a court of inquiry was instituted, but without any particular result. It was during the investment of Saragossa by the French in 1808, when the place was defended by the Spaniards under the brave general Palafox, that a young woman, named Augustina, materially tended, by her heroic exertions, to damp the ardour of the enemy. Though made prisoner, she escaped from the hospital to which a fever had confined her, and upon rejoining the Spanish army, was raised to military rank in the artillery.

Sir John Moore was then sent to the Peninsula, in full command of the British army; and in November he had reached Salamanca, where he was informed that the forces of the patriots had been recently routed by the French. To retreat, therefore, was Sir John's

only course; but the hostility of the villagers in those parts, and the coldness of the season, brought great distress upon his devoted army, as it worked its way to the sea, through more than 250 miles of mountain country. On the 11th of January, 1809, it reached Corunna, and on the 16th commenced its embarkation on board the transports brought thither for the purpose. The French, however, under marshal Soult, having advanced upon the town before the main body of the forces had taken ship, Sir John determined to give them battle; and in the early part of the contest received his death-wound. General Hope maintained the action until the complete discomfiture of the enemy; so that the embarkation was effected in the following night; but the British lost in this unfortunate expedition 6000 men, and all its ammunition and stores.

Soult now advanced upon and took Oporto; but the opportune return of Sir Arthur Wellesley from England induced that general to relinquish his acquisition, and retreat towards Madrid. The defeat of Cuesta, the Spanish leader, in Estremadura, by the French, caused Sir Arthur to give up the pursuit of Soult; and in July, 1809, in conjunction with Cuesta, he gained a victory over the enemy at Talavera. The chief object of the French in the campaign of 1810 was to get possession of Portugal; which Sir Arthur (now raised to the rank of Viscount Wellington), was determined to prevent if possible. When the fortress of Almeida fell to the enemy in August, his lordship made the people of the town and neighbouring villages remove towards Lisbon, after burning every thing which they could not carry away; and after the French had been driven from Sierra Busaco, with equal loss on both sides, he removed to Torres Vedras, carrying with him the whole population of the intervening country. Great individual distress was the necessary consequence of this proceeding; and to alleviate it, liberal

contributions were made in Lisbon and England. At the close of the year, Massena, with the French army, made Santarem his head-quarters; while lord Wellington, with the capital behind him, and the sea open for supplies, had no reason to complain of difficulties.

In March 1811, the attempt of a combined English and Spanish force to destroy the French blockade of Cadiz, brought on the battle of Barrosa; and general Graham, the commander, obtained great credit for his talented conduct on so trying an occasion. After a very severe action, the enemy retreated, leaving behind them an eagle, six pieces of cannon, two generals wounded, and the field covered with arms and dead bodies. Massena, tired of waiting for supplies, and surrounded by a devastated country, now quitted Santarem, followed by lord Wellington. The object of the latter in pursuing the French, was to prevent their excesses, and to urge them into Spain by the nearest roads; notwithstanding which, they acted most barbarously to the people through whose villages they passed. Massena crossed the Spanish frontier on the 4th of April, and continued his retreat till he reached Ciudad Rodrigo, where he established his head-quarters, and whence he sallied forth to attack the British, who were blockading Almeida. But his assaults were repulsed by the skill of lord Wellington, Almeida was evacuated by its garrison, and many prisoners were made, as the retreating men wound their way through the blockading posts in silence, with the hope of escaping unobserved. The battle of Albuera took place between marshal Soult and the English marshal Beresford in June, when victory declared for the British, the enemy being compelled to cross the river, leaving 2000 dead, and 1000 prisoners. At the close of the year, sickness, and the want of reinforcements, induced lord Wellington to take up his winter-quarters within the Portuguese frontier; but on the 19th of January, 1812,

he got possession of Ciudad Rodrigo by assault. The garrison of 1700 men, besides officers, together with 153 pieces of cannon, and vast quantities of stores, were all placed at the disposal of the British; and the Spanish Cortes instantly made the conqueror a grandee of the first class, as duke of Ciudad Rodrigo, his grateful country conferring upon him an earldom. The earl of Wellington next invested Badajoz, on both sides of the Guadiana; and on the 7th of April the garrison surrendered, reduced as it was by the operations of the siege from 5000 to 3800 men. Soult, when he heard of this severe loss, retreated towards Andalusia; and the earl arrived without opposition at Salamanca, July 16th.

On the 22d a general engagement commenced. The resistance of the French was obstinate; but, at the approach of night, they fled, and were pursued by the English as long as they could be distinguished. Twelve pieces of cannon, two eagles, and a number of colours, and waggons, were captured, 100 officers made prisoners, marshal Marmont wounded severely, and four general officers slain. The earl lost no time in advancing upon Madrid, which he entered August 12th, king Joseph, the brother of Napoleon, having quitted it four days before; and in commemoration of this event, the noble general was created marquis of Wellington, and presented, by the unanimous voice of parliament, with a handsome grant of money to purchase lands. After a short stay in the capital, the British advanced towards Valladolid, the enemy retiring before them to Burgos. Burgos the French evacuated in the night; but they left there a large garrison in the castle, and the place being defended by an almost impregnable line of works, lord Wellington, for want of artillery, was compelled to begin a retrograde march. He was closely pursued by the enemy, who gained an additional share of courage on perceiving an army, which had hitherto appeared invincible, actuated by fear. By the eminent skill,

however, of their leader, the British reached Freynada on the frontier of Portugal, with trifling loss: pursued as they were by an overwhelming force of 75,000 men and 200 pieces of cannon. Lord Wellington took up his winter-quarters here; and visiting Lisbon, was received with the most unequivocal marks of triumphant welcome.

Nothing further occurred worthy of mention until 1813, when the Cortes, who had hitherto been jealous of the British general, gave him the full command of their troops. By a series of brilliant operations, the French were immediately driven from their positions on the Ebro and Douro, and at length were reduced to the alternative of abandoning the country entirely, or risking every thing upon a pitched battle. King Joseph adopted the latter course, and drew up his forces near Vittoria, where, on the 21st of June, he was signally beaten. The artillery, baggage, and military chest of the fugitives, fell into the hands of the victors; and so complete was the rout, that the remnants of the defeated army scarcely deemed themselves safe until they had escaped fairly into France. When intelligence of this victory reached England, the marquis was advanced to the very unusual British honour of Field-marshal. Before pursuing the French into their own country, it was necessary for the marquis to reduce St. Sebastian and Pampeluna: the former, after a frightful loss, was taken by storm, and the latter surrendered by capitulation. Meanwhile the operations of the allied armies in the south-eastern provinces proceeded badly; and Sir John Murray, after beginning the siege of Tarragona without consideration, abandoned his works and guns with equal haste. But the vigour of the marquis compensated this error: he crossed the Bidassoa in October, and in the next month defeated Soult's army on the Nivelle. Winter interrupted not the war; and Soult, being driven with severe loss from his strong position at

Orthes, exposed Bordeaux to the invading army. At the same instant the duc d'Angoulême, the representative of the ancient line of monarchs, and present ex-king of France, arrived in the marquis's camp, and was received by the people of Bordeaux with unexpected enthusiasm. The white cockade was to be seen in every hat and cap, the white flag streamed from every steeple, castle, and tower, and no spectator could have supposed but that the loyal feeling of the people, suppressed during the long tyranny of Buonaparte, had now burst forth, never again to be subdued.

The marquis having advanced against Soult, the latter retreated to Tarbes, and was driven thence upon Thoulouse; and on the 10th of April, 1814, a sanguinary battle took place between the two armies. Soult being defeated, evacuated the post in the night of the 11th, leaving three generals and 1600 men prisoners; and on the following day the marquis entered the town amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. In the evening of that day news reached the victorious general, which made it evident that the last severe conflict might have been spared; the emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia had entered Paris on the 31st of March, and Buonaparte had been formally deposed. Soult, however, did not deem the intelligence authentic, and the marquis therefore continued his advance until the 17th of April; when fresh despatches arrived, and the French desired a suspension of hostilities. Upon the arrival of the marquis in Paris, he was deservedly created duke of Wellington by his sovereign; and an additional grant of money was made to his Grace by the parliament, to purchase lands.

Thus closed the celebrated Peninsular War, which is alone sufficient to place the name of Wellington, according to the judgment of experienced military men, in the highest rank of warriors, whether of ancient or modern times; and as a merciful victor, and

the guardian of his men, no general has ever more deserved or more obtained the approbation of all true lovers of their country.

Portugal under Queen Maria, 1777 to 1816. King Joseph was succeeded by his daughter Maria, who had married her uncle, don Pedro; but as her mind became disordered by a religious melancholy soon after her accession, her son, prince John of Brazil, took upon him the government in her name. As the ally of Britain, the prince, who was at length appointed regent, 1799, took a feeble part in the war with revolutionary France, beyond which, and a temporary rupture with Spain, nothing important occurred until 1807, when Napoleon threatened Portugal with an invasion, because of the prince's refusal to break his neutrality by joining France against Britain. On the assembling of 40,000 French soldiers at Bayonne, the English residents resolved on quitting Portugal, and the court on escaping to its colony of Brazil; but when on the point of departure, the regent suddenly determined to make concessions to Napoleon, and even signed an order for detaining the few British subjects who had not yet embarked. Sir Sydney Smith, with his squadron, which had come mainly to aid the Portuguese in their escape, blockaded the Tagus most rigorously thereupon, and thus shut in the prince's fleet; and the regent, when he found that, before his apologies could reach Napoleon, the emperor had, with his usual fiat, declared 'the house of Braganza to be no more,' gladly accepted the protection of the English, and was safely conveyed from the coast. On his arrival at Rio Janeiro, prince John issued a manifesto, 1808, declaring war against France, annulling all the treaties he had been compelled to conclude by Buonaparte (including that by which he had bound Portugal to be neutral, 1804), and affirming that he would never agree to a cession of his country. The events which

followed this expatriation of all the wealthy classes of Portugal, are mainly connected with the Peninsular war. The queen died 1816; and great disturbances breaking out in 1820, the king (John VI.) deemed it prudent to restore order by his presence, and returned to Lisbon 1821.

Germany under Joseph II., Leopold II. and Francis II. 1765 to 1835. *Joseph II.* was crowned emperor on the decease of his father, Francis of Lorraine, 1765, and succeeded as king of Hungary and Bohemia, on the death of his mother, 1780. He displayed a great desire to extend his dominions, and to reform their internal policy; yet without taking proper methods for accomplishing his purposes. Hence he was almost always disappointed, insomuch that he wrote for his epitaph, 'Here lies Joseph, unfortunate in all his undertakings.' When England and Holland were at variance, he took the opportunity to deprive the latter of the barrier towns, which had been secured to her by the treaty of Utrecht; alleging, that it was derogatory to his dignity to have so many of his cities in the hands of foreigners, and yet garrisoned at his expense. As the evacuation of these towns speedily followed, Joseph next demanded the free navigation of the Scheldt; but this the Hollanders flatly refused, and as Prussia and France seemed to approve their conduct, the emperor gave up his design, and made war with the Turks. While his generals were occupied in reducing the Ottoman power, Joseph still proceeded with his reforms; and, after consenting to the unjust division of Poland, produced a revolt in the Austrian Netherlands, by forcing upon them his new code of laws. The Netherlands had always been remarkable for their attachment to the Romish religion in its most superstitious form; and when they saw Joseph issue orders for the abridgment of divine service, for the suppression of choir-singing, and for the abolition of papal

supremacy throughout his dominions, 1787, they formed themselves into a republic, under the title of *the Belg provinces*. The king, in alarm, made a promise to restore their ancient privileges, if they would return to their duty; but death seized him while labouring to put down the revolt. 1790, when only in his fortieth year. — *Leopold II.* succeeded his brother, and having ruled the Tuscans for twenty-five years, was a very experienced prince at the time of his accession. He speedily made peace with the Turks, and brought the Netherlands to their allegiance by his judicious policy. Having entered into an alliance with England, he was preparing to make a stand against the encroachments of France, when a diarrhoea carried him to the grave, 1792. His son *Francis II.* succeeded: he had been educated by his uncle, Joseph II., was with general Laudon at the taking of Belgrade from the Turks, 1789, and had made himself well acquainted with affairs during his father's brief reign. The first disturbance he received was from Louis XVI., whom the legislative assembly had forced to declare hostilities against him, in consequence of the manifesto of his general, the duke of Brunswick. When Buonaparte succeeded to the command of the French in that war, the emperor was obliged, by the treaty of Campo Formio, 1797, to yield the duchy of Milan and Belgium to France; taking Venice and Dalmatia in exchange. In 1799, Austria allied with Russia and England against France; but Francis was still unfortunate, and after losing Lombardy, was glad to come to terms with his enemy at Luneville, 1801, whereby his brother renounced Tuscany, and his uncle the sovereignty of Modena. When Napoleon had declared himself emperor of the French, 1804, Francis again joined the party against him; but the issue was still more unfavourable to him. After his marked defeat at Austerlitz, he saw the ancient empire

of Germany dissolved, and by the treaty of Presburg, 1805, was forced to yield Venice and the Tyrol to the conqueror. He now relinquished his august titles of German and Roman emperor, and took the more humble one of hereditary emperor of Austria, with which his house has ever since been content. When Alexander of Russia and Napoleon, after the treaty of Tilsit, were devising changes which threatened the subversion of his throne, Francis, availing himself of Buonaparte's embarrassments in Spain, began a fourth war with his enemy, and that without any ally, 1809. All Germany now took an interest in the emperor's proceedings; and the general hatred of the French yoke induced the peasantry to swell his ranks, while Schill and the duke of Brunswick-Oëls created diversions in his favour, and harassed his enemy. Vienna, however, was obliged to be abandoned; but as the Austrians still kept in force, Napoleon was not sorry, after his victory at Wagram, to accept the proffered armistice of the archduke Charles, which ended in the peace of Schoenbrunn, 1809. In 1810 Buonaparte married a daughter of Francis, and Austria was enabled to preserve a neutrality, as regarded the contest between France and Russia, until Napoleon refused to evacuate Germany in 1813. Francis then joined the Russians and Prussians; and after mainly contributing to the victory of Leipsic, saw his troops enter the French territory, preparatory to the fall of Paris to his allies, 1814. To that capital he repaired in April, to hold conferences with the emperor of Russia, and king of Prussia; and on his return to Vienna, a grand congress of the European powers opened its sittings in his presence. After Napoleon's return from Elba, 1815, Francis sent troops to occupy Lyons, while another force drove Murat from Naples, and restored the rightful king; but from that period until his death 1835, the emperor, delighted with something like a rest from his labours, interfered not with

the affairs of other states. He died in his sixty-seventh year. His daughter, the widow of Napoleon, now duchess of Parma, saw her son, the duke of Reichstadt, sink into an early grave, 1832, to the great sorrow of all the imperial family.

Russia under Alexander I. He succeeded to the throne upon the murder of his father, Paul, 1801, and instantly put an end to the war with England. Uniting with England, Prussia, and Austria, against France 1805, a campaign ensued, which was notably disastrous to the allies; and after their complete defeat at Austerlitz, Alexander returned to Russia with his shattered forces. Again joining with Prussia against Napoleon, he was again beaten with terrible loss at Eylau and Friedland, 1807, whereupon, coming to an armistice, the emperors of France and Russia met in a tent erected on a raft in the midst of the river Niemen, and from enemies were converted into such ardent friends, as to agree (it is said) to divide Europe between them. The treaty of Tilsit which ensued, showed Alexander the opponent of all his former allies; and for five years he acted in close union with Napoleon, depriving Sweden of Finland, and obtaining eastern Galicia from Austria. In 1812, however, the autocrat broke with the French emperor, on account of his seizure of the territories of his brother-in-law the duke of Oldenburg; and allying with Sweden (Bernadotte being the crown-prince), he saw Napoleon enter his dominions with a vast force in the month of June. Alexander had long been at war both with the Persians and Turks; but he came to terms with the latter in order to contend the better with his active opponent, who, as he advanced into Russia, found every town deserted and even burned by the inhabitants, and the country every where about him a desert. Alexander was with Bernadotte in Finland, when he heard of the entry of the French into Smolensk. 'Should Petersburg be taken,' he exclaimed,

'I will retire into Siberia, resume the ancient customs of our long-bearded ancestors, and return anew to conquer the empire!' 'That resolution,' returned the crown-prince, 'will free Europe.' The calamitous issue of Napoleon's campaign is briefly treated of in the memoir of that extraordinary man: after the entrance of Alexander with William Frederick of Prussia into Paris, at the head of 150,000 troops, 1814, the deposition of the modern Charlemagne followed, and the two victorious sovereigns paid a three weeks' visit to England. The congress of Vienna now agreed to the union of the better part of Poland with Russia; and on Napoleon's return from Elba, Alexander again repaired to Paris, with the emperor of Austria and king of Prussia, and projected the celebrated 'holy alliance,' subsequently entered into for the preservation of universal peace on Christian principles. The remainder of the autocrat's reign was occupied in conflicts with the ancient barbaric enemies of his country, the Persians, Kalmucks, and Turks, and he died of a fever, aged forty-eight, 1825. When Alexander ascended the throne, the Russian empire was nearly as it had been left, a century before, by Peter the Great; and there is no other instance in history of the rise of an old established nation, in the brief space of twenty-five years, from a state of comparative rudeness and insignificance, to one of prosperity, polish, and power.

The Swedish Revolution, 1809. Gustavus IV. possessed certain qualities which gave him a resemblance to Charles XII., the prince whose conduct he is thought to have taken as a model. Nothing would shake any resolution he had formed, and his capacity of enduring cold was such, that with only a slight covering, he would travel in the severe northern winter, when his courtiers were freezing under the load of two or three great coats and surtouts. According to Dr. Thornton, the Swedish traveller,

Gustavus, after reading Jung's commentary on the Apocalypse, considered Buonaparte, (the letters of whose name, written N. Buonaparte, were made fancifully to represent the number 666, or mark of the second beast), pointed out by the Evangelist, and himself called on to overthrow his dominion. The same writer asserts that the king became so firmly convinced of the truth of his discovery, that he thought nothing more necessary for the fulfilment of the prediction than an unqualified refusal to treat with Napoleon. No precaution on his part would be requisite to enable him to accomplish the intention of heaven. Accordingly, when besieged in Stralsund by a French army, he expected the visible interposition of an angel in his behalf. But when this angel, who was to be four German miles in height, did not appear, and the French batteries were nearly completed, he thought it requisite to attend to his own safety, and retreat to the island of Rugen.

The king, notwithstanding these eccentricities, had all along been very popular with the people; and the most glorious results would have taken place, had Gustavus understood how to profit by the disposition of his subjects. But the management of the war in 1808, the deplorable state of the finances, the determination of the king never to make peace, and some absurd plans projected for the next campaign, caused colonel Aldesparre, who commanded the western army, to unite with other men in command, and seize the king's person, March 13th, 1809. This was accordingly effected, and the duke of Sudermania, uncle of the deposed king, instantly took upon him the government, as Charles XIII.; and having no family, an heir presumptive was ordered to be elected crown-prince. The choice fell upon Bernadotte, prince of Ponté Corvo, who at that time had the command of a French army in the north of Germany; and Charles XIII. dying 1818, Bernadotte was proclaimed king of Sweden, by the title of Charles XIV. He was

born in France of humble parents, 1764, and was serving as a private soldier in the French army at the period of the revolution. His subsequent rise to the highest military rank under Buonaparte, is too well known to be more than here alluded to: it is sufficient to mention the great attachment shown to him by the Swedish nation, and that, in his favour, the people have set aside the ancient line of their kings. He has one child, a son, named Joseph Francis Oscar, now crown-prince, born 1799. With much consideration for the prejudices of the Swedes, Bernadotte has not employed, it is said, a single Frenchman either in the Swedish army, or in any other situation. Gustavus IV. died, aged fifty-eight, at Gall in Switzerland, 1837.

Retreat of the Duke of Brunswick-Oëls, 1809. The occupation of Napoleon's best armies in Spain induced the emperor Francis, who was anxious to escape from French domination, to declare war against Buonaparte in the spring of 1809. Buonaparte, however, entered Vienna in May; and, on the 6th of July, destroyed the strength of Austria in the decisive battle of Wagram. By a treaty hereupon signed, Austria was deprived of a large extent of territory, and compelled to abstain from all intercourse with England; while it was agreed that Napoleon should take the daughter of his enemy as his wife.

The duke of Brunswick had been engaged in the contest with France, as an ally of the emperor, and had defeated, with his gallant corps, a body of 12,000 men under marshal Junot, who with Jerome Buonaparte, king of Westphalia, was ravaging the unprotected inhabitants of Saxony. When the news of the armistice between France and Austria reached the duke, he determined to fight his way to England, where he was sure of protection. And here it must be stated that, when the duke's father had received his death-wound at Jena, Napoleon had refused his request to enter Brun-

wick, and die in his own bed: 'Qu'il s'en aille en Angleterre, y chercher son salut:—je veux l'écraser lui et toute sa famille!' was the note he wrote to the party waiting his orders at Brunswick. The young duke, bearing this inhuman proceeding in mind, arrayed his followers in mourning habiliments; and till the death of Napoleon, this gloomy uniform was commanded to be used. The black Jagers of Brunswick performed their last duties at Waterloo, where the great foe of their prince terminated his political existence, and their undaunted leader his life. Though deserted, on the arrival of the news alluded to, by all his cavalry officers, save ten of the youngest, the duke set his troops in motion; and notwithstanding the opposition he met with at Leipsic, Halle, and other points, arrived with his corps unbroken at the gates of Halberstadt. This town being possessed by 3000 Westphalian soldiers, the duke assaulted it, and after a severe contest gained possession, taking prisoner count Wellingeroë, the bosom friend of king Jerome, with all his officers, and 1600 men.

On the 31st of July, the duke arrived at Brunswick; and it was a most affecting event to see him, after an absence of several years, once more in the midst of his affectionate people. The danger and fear of incurring the punishment of death, were not sufficient to restrain the marks of attachment and love which all were eager to show him; every countenance expressed the sentiments which good citizens entertain towards their legitimate sovereign. On the following morning intelligence arrived, that general Reubell's corps was approaching from Celle, with a view of closing the road to Cuxhaven against the Black Legion; and that general Gratien, with a force of Saxons, was following close in his rear. The danger of being overpowered induced the duke to venture a battle; and at three in the afternoon he advanced against Reubell, and drove him back upon Celle. Notwith-

standing this advantage, sixteen Brunswicks officers, intimidated by reports of the strength of the enemy in the rear, asked for their discharge; and the duke having freely complied, gave up his intention of pursuing the enemy; but in order to deceive them, a detachment of fifty cavalry was sent to press on their rear-guard, so that the Saxons believed the whole force of the Brunswicks to be approaching. In the hurry of the retreat, ten waggons and the wounded were left behind, together with a note from the commander, recommending the latter to the protection of the black troop, the generosity of whose chieftain he complimented in the highest strain.

The duke now made the best of his way to Hanover; and on entering the city, he took prisoners a battalion of the Westphalian infantry, and several detachments of Dutch and French, besides capturing four cannon, and a large quantity of military stores. At Bremen he met with similar success, the authorities fleeing, and 600 soldiers laying down their arms. The cavalry were instantly sent to Bracke, to embark in such vessels as they could find; and at length, after seeing all his faithful followers safely on board, the duke himself took ship on the 7th of August. A considerable force of Westphalians harassed the Brunswicks at the moment of their departure, and the Danish batteries, by which the vessels had to pass, fired upon them as they approached the land by tacking; but they eventually got clear of their enemies, and on the 8th, an English squadron under lord George Stuart, sent in search of them by king George, took them all speedily on board. In a few days after, the gallant little party reached the British shores; where they were received as brethren, and assisted in every manner, until the period of the recovery of Brunswick from Napoleon, 1814.

Tyrolese Insurrection, 1809. Bavaria having received, by Napoleon's arrangement, the country of the Tyrol in lieu of Wurzburg, it was stipulated

that the former should retain the same privileges as when under the dominion of Austria, whose protection it had enjoyed 500 years. Maximilian of Bavaria, however, was no sooner master of the country, than a total change was effected, and even the name of South Bavaria substituted for that of the Tyrol. The Tyrolese, upon this breach of faith, secretly determined to deliver their country from the Bavarian yoke; and sending deputies privately to Vienna, the Austrians promised them a supply of arms. Among the deputies was Andre Hofer, whose family, for a long succession of years, had been proprietors of the inn at Sand, in the valley of Passeyr; of which himself was now the host. His benevolence of character had endeared him to the inhabitants of the valley; and a former campaign, in which he commanded a company of tirailleurs, had made him sufficiently acquainted with war to induce him to take the lead in the projected levy of the people. Accordingly when 10,500 Austrian troops entered the country in the night of the 8th April, 1809, merely to organize the *levée en masse*, Hofer and his friend Teimer issued their proclamations, and were speedily joined by the peasantry. The Bavarians, hardly able to comprehend the nature of so sudden a revolution, began destroying the bridges and highways, to obstruct the further progress of the Austrians; but, to their astonishment, they could obtain assistance only from their own soldiers; and on attempting to retreat from the Tyrol, a great number of them were made prisoners by the country people. Though the French speedily reinforced them, and engaged the Tyrolese at St. Laurent, the united forces were entirely put to the rout; and the capitulation of Wiltau, which obtained Martin Teimer the title of baron de Wiltau, effected on the 13th of April the emancipation of the country.

Thus, without the aid of regular troops (for the Austrians did not con-

and), the peasantry of the Tyrol retook their little territory to the protection of its ancient guardians. During the conflict, the women, armed with pitchforks, were employed in flinging down fragments of rock from the elevated crags of the mountains on their enemies passing along the valleys; and they were for the most part boys who dismounted a corps of cavalry on the plains of Halle. The united French and Bavarians twice entered the little state; and after their third repulse by the people, a *Fest Te Deum* was celebrated at Innsbruck, which place Hofer entered in triumph on the 15th of August. Hofer was now declared commander-in-chief of the Tyrol, and all authority, civil and military, was vested in his person; but unhappily a division took place in a few weeks between him and Teimer, and the French, taking advantage of the feud, recovered by the end of October every important post.

Peace having been concluded between France and Austria, an amnesty was promised to such of the Tyrolese as would lay down their arms without delay. Hofer, however, called upon his countrymen to reject the proposal, and, in several spirited proclamations, entreated them to make one grand effort to drive out the invaders. But the heroic Sandwirth found himself alone in the field; and deserted by the peasantry, he fled to a little cottage, only four leagues distant from Sand, whither some faithful adherents carried him food. Here an express from the emperor reached him, entreating his instant removal to Vienna; but he strangely declined the gracious offer, and Donay de Schlanders, his treacherous confidant, having, for a large sum of money, discovered the place of his retreat, a company of 1500 Frenchmen came within musket shot of the cottage. Hofer made no resistance, and was taken to Mantua, where a council of war ordered his execution within twenty-four hours. The Sandwirth heard his sentence with

calmness, and only remarked that he had hoped the peculiarity of his situation would have justified his conduct after the amnesty.

On the morning of the 20th of February, 1810, at eleven, Hofer was brought forth, escorted by soldiers, and conducted in procession to the place appointed for his execution. Those of the Tyrolese who were in the houses fell on their knees in prayer as he passed; while as many as could get into the streets, attended him to the fatal spot, imploring his benediction. The martyr to the cause of the Tyrol freely dispensed it to them; and when the escort drew up on a bastion near the Porta Ceresa, he gave to the abbé Manifesti, his confessor, all he had of value about his person, requesting him to distribute it as he thought proper. Twelve grenadiers and a corporal were then ordered to advance, and the Sandwirth to be placed in the centre. He accordingly came forward, but would not suffer his eyes to be bandaged; and when desired to fall on his knees, refused, saying emphatically, 'I am upright, speaking as a mortal, before Him who created me; and upright I wish to surrender to Him my spirit,' thus unconsciously conforming to the maxim of Vespasian, '*Imperatorem oportet stantem mori.*' To the corporal he gave a piece of twenty kreutzers, coined during his administration; and then exclaimed in a loud voice, 'Fire!' Though each of the twelve grenadiers struck him, he died not until the corporal's musket had been discharged. The grenadiers then bore away the corpse, and it was interred with great solemnity.

Suspension of the Papal Power, 1809. After the death of Ganganelli (Clement XIV.) and the suppression of the Jesuits, the temporal power of the popes rapidly declined. While Pius VI., his successor, wore the tiara, he was called from his useful and extensive labour of draining the Pontine marshes, to witness the suppression of the religious orders in France. In the sudden declension of religion, Naples

insulted him by refusing its customary tribute of a horse; Avignon was restored to France; the French entered his capital in arms (1796), and deprived him of half his territories; and finally general Berthier came upon him with an irresistible force in 1798, declared Rome a republic, and conveyed the pontiff a prisoner to France. At Briangon, Pius converted the ferocity of his oppressors into admiration and reverence; and when he expected only death at their hands, he saw the multitude suddenly moved with compassion, and fall down at his feet. He passed on to Valence, and was there seized with an illness which carried him to the grave in eleven days. The papal power was now at an end; but in 1800, Buonaparte, to serve his own views, raised cardinal Chiaramonte to the dignity, by the title of Pius VII.: he it was who crowned Napoleon emperor in 1804. The French ruler, however, resolved upon having no authority superior to his own, issued a decree, 1809, which declared the papal functions terminated, and Rome added for ever to France. He detained the pope prisoner at Fontainebleau, and there kept him until his own overthrow in 1814; at which period his holiness was restored to his capital and dignity.

Massacre of the Mamluk Beys, 1811.

Mohammed Ali, pacha of Egypt for the Turkish emperor, having been long fearful of a rise amongst the Mamluk chiefs, the former rulers of Egypt, drove many of them into Dongola and Nubia, and invited such as he had not any excuse to expel, to attend the magnificent procession of his son Tossun, on occasion of being created general-in-chief in an expedition against the Wahhabies. M. Salamé thus relates the issue. 'The mournful Friday came, when Shaheen Bey Elfy collected all the other Mamluk Beys at his palace; and, little suspecting any treacherous dealing, the whole party, splendidly attired, and mounted on the most beautiful horses, proceeded at nine in the morning to the citadel. After they were gone, I mounted my

ass, and, not without great difficulty on account of the crowd, reached the inner courtyard of the castle. Here, after some delay, the beys paid their congratulations to the Pacha and his proclaimed son, and formed into procession. The cavalcade began with the janizaries; and the Mamluk Beys were the last who preceded the pacha's son. More than an hour elapsed before the whole had left the castle; and before the beys had come out, Mohammed Ali, habited in a blue robe and pink turban, and accompanied by Hassan pacha, went to a small room on the staircase of the divan, looking over the court. He appeared much agitated. Suddenly I saw, as the beys came out, to my utmost horror, the gate closed, and I heard Ahmed order the troops to fire! The soldiers, not aware of the plot, did not obey; whereupon Ahmed himself fired at one of the beys, and the men followed his example. The spectacle of the innocent victims falling off their horses was most awful; but a few, who were not killed at the first fire, rushed (as I did myself) into the castle, calling for mercy. They were, however, pursued by the soldiery; and all who surrendered, including Shaheen Bey, had their heads instantly cut off. Dromedaryers were now despatched by Mohammed Ali to the governors of provinces, directing them to seize all the Mamluks who might be found in the villages, and send them in chains to Cairo; and 200 were collected and barbarously beheaded, making the whole number massacred between 600 & 700. Many Mamluks still exist in Nubia; and one of the most wealthy and powerful of them lately was Emeen Bey, of the house of Shaheen Bey Elfy, who so unhappily fell with his companions into the snare laid for him in Egypt.

Second American War, 1812.

In 1811, the Little Belt, a British ship of small force, under captain Bingham, had engaged the American frigate, United States, under commodore Rogers; and each party laid the blame, as respected the original offence, upon the other. As the point was not at

once explicitly settled, it was resolved by the Americans in 1812 to decide it with the sword ; and a contest was for some time carried on upon the lakes and frontiers of Canada, which, though productive of events, was unimportant in consequences to either party. In June, 1813, an engagement took place between the British frigate, Shannon, captain Broke, and the United States frigate, Chesapeake, off the port of Boston ; and the former being victorious, the Chesapeake was led away in triumph in sight of the Americans. In this desultory manner did the war proceed until 1814, when England having closed her long continental struggle, made strenuous efforts to end the dispute. Washington, the capital, was accordingly taken by surprise, by captain Ross, August the 24th ; and after burning the public buildings, together with two vessels of war on the stocks, the invaders retired.

The Americans, with their accustomed confidence, had never dreamed of defeat. Mr. Maddison, the president, had even prepared a dinner for the victorious officers of the army at his residence ; and when a detachment, sent to destroy the house, entered his dining-parlour, they found covers laid for forty guests. Several kinds of wine were cooling on the side-board ; plate-holders stood by the fireplace ; knives, forks, and spoons, were arranged for immediate use ; in short every thing was ready for the entertainment of a ceremonious party. Such were the arrangements in the dining-room ; whilst in the kitchen were others answerable to them in every respect. Spits, loaded with joints of various sorts, turned before the fire ; pots, saucepans, and other culinary utensils, stood upon the grate ; and all the other requisites for an elegant and substantial repast were exactly in a state which indicated that they had been lately and precipitately abandoned. We may readily imagine that these preparations were beheld by a party of hungry soldiers with no indifferent eye. An elegant dinner, even

though considerably over-dressed, was a luxury to which few of them, at least for some time back, had been accustomed ; and which, after the dangers and fatigues of the day, appeared peculiarly inviting. They served it up, and sat down to it, therefore, with countenances which would not have disgraced a party of aldermen at a civic feast ; and having satisfied their appetites, finished by setting fire to the house which had so liberally entertained them. This act of severity was occasioned by the people of Washington having fired upon a general officer when carrying a flag of truce into the city from the British. On the 24th of December a treaty of peace was concluded between the two countries at Ghent ; but not in time to prevent an attack by the English on New Orleans, in which they were defeated January 1815, with 2000 killed, wounded, and prisoners, including generals Pakenham and Keane killed, and general Gibbs severely wounded.

The Retreat of Buonaparte from Moscow, 1812.

Restoration of Sovereigns. Buonaparte, on his dethronement 1814, being constituted king of Elba in the Mediterranean, Louis XVIII., brother of the murdered Louis XVI., was acknowledged sovereign of France ; while Ferdinand VII. recovered the Spanish crown, and pope Pius VII. his tiara. The duke of Brunswick was cordially welcomed to his ancient inheritance, and the king of the Sicilies received his territories unimpaired. The Stadtholder had been in 1813 joyfully greeted at Amsterdam with cries of 'Orange boven !' (Orange for ever!) and the whole continent was speedily put into the form which characterized it before the French revolution.

Holland joined to Belgium, and made a Kingdom, 1814. On this occasion the stadtholder assumed the style of William I. king of the United Netherlands ; and his title of Prince of Orange was made to devolve on the heir apparent of his throne. The

states of Nassau, in Germany, were the inheritance of the stadtholder, who was called Prince of Orange-Nassau, from the junction by marriage in 1530 of the houses of Nassau and Orange, the latter situated in Dauphiné. The Nassaus, however, are now ruled by other branches, though the Dutch family has still some interest in them.

Death of the Duke of Brunswick-Oels, 1815. Brussels being the headquarters of the British forces, while waiting the approach of the French army, invitations had been sent out for a grand ball at the duke of Richmond's, in that city, on the 15th of June, 1815; but in the interval between the sending forth of the cards and the appointed evening, the enemy had quietly advanced upon the Netherlands, and were at a comparatively short distance from Brussels. The duke of Brunswick attended the ball, and having seated himself in a window, thought he occasionally heard the report of distant musketry. No such sounds, however, were observed in the streets; yet the duke, convinced in his own mind of the fact, hastened unnoticed from the room, reached that part of the city where a party of his troops was stationed, and proceeded to arm for battle. This was at two in the morning of the 16th; and the corps being assembled, he advanced towards Quatre Bras, leaving a detachment, which had ascertained the arrival of the French, to publish the news in Brussels. A second detachment which met the duke, contradicting in some measure the report of the other, he halted at the nearest hamlet. While here, he expressed great anxiety respecting his children at Brunswick, having despatched a messenger thither for their preceptor, Dr. Prince, to whom he was desirous of personally communicating his wishes, in the event of his fall in action. That gentleman, however, from the early advance of the French, was not enabled to reach Brussels in time to see the duke alive; and, an order from the duke of Wellington to march arriving, his high-

ness delayed no longer to put himself at the head of his gallant jagers.

The French had been firing for two hours upon the British outposts (thus verifying the surmises of his serenity in the ball-room), and then had been a slight skirmish before his arrival; so that, having speedily formed in battle array, he advanced upon the enemy. After an obstinate engagement of three hours, a bullet shattered the duke's wrist, while he was in the act of taking a handkerchief from the breast of his coat, and entering the right side, came out under the left shoulder. He did not survive five minutes after receiving the fatal shot. Once he attempted to speak but could only whisper the name of Olfermann, the colonel of the corps; and once he made a sign to the men who were carrying him off the field, that they would raise his head a little higher. Before the bearers could gain a resting-place for the body, its noble spirit had fled. Then did those unused to shed tears weep! Idolized as the duke had been by his faithful jagers, they put the corpse upon the ground, and wept aloud! The shouts of 'the enemy is coming!' at length roused the bearers from their grief, and they conveyed the body with all speed to the palace of Lacken, whence it was removed by easy stages to Brunswick for interment. Never did a prince die more deeply or more deservedly regretted by his people; and lord Byron has too correctly commemorated the last moments of the hero, to pass his vivid description unnoticed:

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her beauty and her chivalry; and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave
men:
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes look'd love to eyes which spake
again,
And all went merry as a marriage-bell.
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a
rising knell!
Did ye not hear it?—No; 'twas but the wind,
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street;
On with the dance! let joy be unconfined;
No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure
meet

the glowing hours with dying
that heavy sound breaks in once
ouds its echo would repeat;
clearer, deadlier, than before;
it is—it is—the cannon's open-
windowed niche of that high hall
swick's fated chieftain; he did
the first amidst the festival,
it its tone with death's prophetic
they smiled because he deem'd it
more truly knew that peel too
stch'd his father on a bloody bier,—
the vengeance blood alone could
into the field, and foremost fight-

of Murat, 1815. Joachim
son of an innkeeper near
having entered the revolu-
army, aided Buonaparte in his
to sovereignty; for which he
arded with his sister as a wife,
ngth with the crown of Naples.
He was with Buonaparte in
Russian campaign; but after
le of Leipsic, showed a dispo-
to treat with the enemy. His
ng conduct with Austria and
proved his ruin; it being
at he wished to hold away
e old cause only while it, was
ardy, and to reaid it, should
again prove favourable. The
overeigns therefore dethroned
nd when the ancient dynasty
en restored, he took up his
ce near Toulon till the return
oleon from Elba. After the
of Waterloo, he took refuge in
y, whence, with a few followers,
ed to Italy in the autumn of
in the hope of recovering
; but he was made prisoner
landing, and condemned to be
Murat, in his best days, had
d a trifling mind, and shown
f pleased with the trappings of
beyond all other men: he was
ntly to be seen promenading the
of Naples in silks and satins,
panied by effeminately-clad per-

sonages as attendants, and was con-
temptuously styled 'the dandy king.'
But his natural bravery, though with
that apathy for religion which marked
the Buonaparte school, shone forth at
his death. He was conversing with
his officers, when informed he had
but half an hour to live; upon which
he sat down and wrote an affectionate
letter to his wife, which he requested
captain Starage to transmit to her,
together with the seal of his watch,
which would be found in his hand
after death (it was a cornelian, repre-
sented her face.) When led from
his room, he beheld twelve soldiers
drawn up in the narrow court; and
walking towards them with a steady
step, he said to them smiling, 'Sol-
diers! do not let me suffer pain.'
He then pointed to his heart, and look-
ing steadfastly on the seal which he
held in his right hand, the detachment
fired. Thus died king Joachim of
Naples, at the age of forty-four.

The Ionian Republic founded, 1815.

It consists of seven islands on the coast
of Greece, in that part of the Mediter-
ranean anciently called the Ionian sea;
and one of them (Theaki) was the
rocky Ithaca of Ulysses. They are
under the protection of Great Britain,
and an English governor constantly
resides at Corfu. They are Corfu,
Santa-Maura, Cephalonia, Theaki,
Zante, Cerigo, and Paxo. Although
all rugged, they are fertile; and the
currants of Cephalonia and Zante (a
minute grape dried) are famous in
commerce all over the world.

Ceylon taken by the English 1815.

This valuable island, at the foot of
Hindustan, was taken from the Cinga-
lese, or native inhabitants, by the Por-
tuguese, without exterminating the
people; but when the traveller, Ro-
bert Knox, visited the place 1657, the
Dutch had expelled the Portuguese,
and held the coast; while the Cinga-
lese possessed the interior, with a
sovereign, called king of Kandy, from
the name of his capital. This barbaric
monarchy lasted until 1815, when the

British expelled the Dutch, and put an end to the kingdom of Kandy. The island is very fertile, 300 miles long, 140 broad, and 900 in circumference, and is well described by Ptolemy under the name of Taprobana. It produces all the fruits of India, whether on the continent or in the islands, and has hence been called the garden of the East, and the paradise of the Indies; grapes, in particular, are found in perfection nine months in the year. The cinnamon of Ceylon is the best produced. Gold, iron, rubies, sapphires, and the topaz, are found there, of superior purity and beauty.

The Holy Alliance, 1815, was a solemn league entered into by Austria, Russia, and Prussia, now that the ambitious schemes of Napoleon were frustrated, to preserve the balance of power throughout Europe; and also to maintain the rights of sovereigns, which had been so unceremoniously invaded by the modern Charlemagne.

The Germanic Confederation, 1815, was formed after the battle of Waterloo, to create a barrier against French aggression and propagandism; and the first session of its legislative body took place 1816. The principal object of this meeting was to guarantee to integral Germany, divided into thirty-eight states, external and internal security. Of the thirty-eight states, two are large kingdoms, Austria and Prussia; four are minor sovereignties, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, and Wurtemberg; and the rest are grand-duchies, the electorate of Hesse, principalities, and free cities. Austria has eleven millions of people, and an army of 270,000 men in time of peace: its extent 3500 square miles. Prussia has ten millions, an army of 320,000 regular troops and landwehr, and 3333 square miles. Bavaria has four millions of people, an army of 54,000, and an extent of 1500 square miles. Saxony has a million and a half of people, a force of 13,000, and an ex-

tent of 272 square miles. Hanover has a population of a million and a half, a force of 30,000 including landwehr, and a surface of 690 square miles. Wurtemberg has a million and a half of people, an army of 5000, and a surface of 362 square miles. Among the duchies, Saxe-Cobourg has 156,000 a force of 2500 men, and an extent of forty-nine square miles; and Brunswick 251,000 people, an army of 3500, and a surface of seventy square miles. Frankfort, Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, are free cities; Hamburg having 10,000 soldiers composed of burgher-guard, and the others 600 men respectively. To sum up the whole, Confederated Germany contains thirty-five millions of people; an army in time of peace of 770,000 soldiers, and in time of war of nearly a million; and a surface of country of 12,000 square miles.

Escape of Count Lavalette, 1815. He had been thirteen years postmaster-general under Napoleon, and having been instrumental in his escape from Elba, was reinstated in office. On the re-entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris, after the battle of Waterloo, marshal Ney and Lavalette were seized, and condemned to death: Ney was executed,—but Lavalette, fortunate in having an enterprising and affectionate wife, niece of the empress Josephine, escaped the hands of justice. As all solicitations to save his life had been sternly rejected, nothing now remained to the count but a fearful looking for death within forty-eight hours. Two days before the morning appointed for his execution, Madame Lavalette proposed the outline of escape which she had planned for the following night; and although deterred by a conviction that it was impracticable, the count consented to her importunity. At five on the following evening, this faithful woman, accompanied by her daughter Josephine, appeared at the prison, dressed in a pelisse of merino lined with fur, and carrying in her reticule a black silk petticoat.

These slight preparations were considered sufficient for disguise; and her instructions were, that on going out, Lavalette should take hold of Josephine's arm, walk very slowly, put on gloves, and cover his face with a handkerchief. In passing under the doors, which were very low, he was to take especial care to stoop, so that no risk might be run of breaking the feathers of the bonnet, an accident by which all might be lost. At the top of the staircase, a chair would be in waiting, into which he would probably be handed by the gaoler. Soon afterwards, he would be conducted from it to a cabriolet, which would convey him to a place of concealment. Seven was the hour appointed for Madame Lavalette's retirement; the clock struck six and three quarters, and she rang for the valet-de-chambre, whispered a few words, and added aloud 'Take care that the chairmen be at their post, for I am now coming.' Then stepping to a part of the room, divided from the remainder by a screen, in less than three minutes she finished her husband's toilette, and showed him to the astonished and almost incredulous Josephine. 'We all advanced' says Lavalette, 'towards the door. I said to Emilie, the jailer comes in every evening after you are gone. Place yourself therefore behind the screen, and make a little noise, as if you were moving some piece of furniture. He will think it is I, and will go out again. By that means I shall gain a few minutes, which are absolutely necessary for me to get away. She understood me, and I pulled the bell. 'Adieu!' she said, raising her eyes to heaven. I pressed her arm with a trembling hand, and we exchanged a look. If we had embraced, we had been ruined. The turnkey was heard; Emilie flew behind the screen; the door opened; I passed first, and then my daughter. After having crossed the passage, I found myself in a large apartment, in the presence of five turnkeys, sitting, standing, and com-

ing in my way. I put my handkerchief to my face, the child took my right hand, and the jailer, coming down the stairs of his apartment, came up to me, and, putting his hand on my arm, said, 'You are going early, madame.' He appeared much affected, and undoubtedly thought my wife had taken an everlasting leave of her husband. It has been said, that my daughter and I sobbed aloud: the fact is, we scarcely dared to sigh. I at last reached the end of the room.

'A turnkey sits there day and night in a large arm-chair, and in a space so narrow, that he can keep his hands on the keys of two doors. This man looked at me without opening his doors. I passed my right hand between the bars, to show him I wished to go out. He at last turned his two keys and we got out. We had a few steps to ascend, to come to the yard; but at the bottom of the staircase there is a guardhouse of gendarmes. About twenty soldiers, headed by their officer, had placed themselves a few paces from me at this point, to see Madame Lavalette pass. Having slowly reached the highest step, I went into the chair that stood a yard or two distant; but no chairman, no servant was there. My daughter remained standing next to the vehicle, while a sentry at six paces distant, kept his eyes fixed on me. A violent degree of agitation began to mingle with my astonishment. My looks were directed towards the sentry's musket, like those of a serpent towards its prey. It almost seemed to me that I held that musket in my grasp. At the first motion, at the first noise, I was resolved to seize it. I felt as if I possessed the strength of ten men; and I should most certainly have killed any one who might have attempted to lay hands on me. This terrible situation lasted about two minutes; but they seemed to me as long as a whole night. At last I heard Bonneville's voice saying to me, 'One of the chairmen was not punctual, but I have found another.' At the same instant, I felt myself raised.

The chair passed through the great court, and, on getting out, turned to the right. We proceeded to the Quai des Orfèvres, facing the Rue de Harlay. There the chair stopped; and my friend Bandus coming up and offering me his arm, said aloud, 'You know, madame, you have a visit to pay to the president.' I got out, and he pointed to a cabriolet that stood at some distance in that dark street. I jumped into it, and the driver said to me, 'Give me my whip.' I looked for it in vain;—he had dropped it. 'Never mind,' said my companion. A motion of the reins made the horse start off in a quick trot. In passing by, I saw Josephine on the quai, her hands clasped and fervently offering up prayers to God. We crossed the Pont St. Michael, and were soon behind the Odéon theatre. It was not till then that I breathed at ease. In looking at the driver of the cabriolet, how great was my astonishment to recognise count Chassenon, who said, 'You have behind you four double-barrelled pistols, well loaded; I hope you will make use of them—and woe to him that shall attempt to stop your flight!' We entered the new Boulevard at the corner of the Rue Plumet: there we stopped. During the way, I had thrown off all my female attire, and put on a servant's dicky great-coat with a round silver-laced hat; and M. Bandus joining us again, I took leave of M. de Chassenon, and modestly followed my new master. It was eight o'clock in the evening; it poured with rain; the night was extremely dark, and the solitude complete in that part of the Faubourg St. Germain. M. Bandus went on so rapidly that it was not without trouble I kept up with him; but at length, after an hour's walk, in which I had lost a shoe, we arrived in the Rue de Grenelle, where M. Bandus stopped and said, 'I am going to enter a nobleman's hotel. While I speak to the porter, get into the court. You will find a staircase on your left hand. Go up to the highest story. Go through a dark passage which you will meet

with to the right, and at the bottom: which is a pile of wood. Stop there! I was seized with a sort of giddiness when I saw M. Bandus knock at the door of the minister for foreign affairs, the duke de Richelieu. While he was talking to the porter, who had thrust his head out of his lodge, I passed rapidly by. 'Where is that man going?' cried the porter. 'It is my servant,' said he. I quickly went up to the third floor, and reached the place that had been described to me. I was scarcely there, when I heard the rustling of a silk gown. I felt myself gently taken by the arm, and pushed into an apartment, the door of which was immediately shut upon me. I stepped up to a fire, which cast a faint light around the room; and having placed my hands upon the stove to warm myself, I found a candlestick and a bundle of matches. I guessed that I might light a candle; and having done so, I examined my new abode. On a chest of drawers I found a paper, on which was written, 'Make no noise, never open your window but in the night; wear slippers of list, and wait with patience.'—The mystery was soon explained, he was sheltered under the roof of M. Bresson, treasurer for the department of foreign affairs, a former deputy of the national convention, who had been proscribed for voting against the death of Louis XVI. His wife, having found refuge with him in a family among the mountains of Vosges, who faithfully protected them during two years, had made a vow to save some political offender, if such were ever thrown in her way; and she now fulfilled it. M. Bresson appeared not long afterwards; he had just quitted the drawing-room of the minister, and had witnessed the consternation exhibited when the escape was announced. 'Not a soul,' he added, 'will go to bed to night at the Tuileries; your flight is believed to be the signal for the explosion of a great plot! open only half your shutters, and if you catch cold, put your head into this closet when you cough.'

The discovery of Lavalette's escape from the conciergerie had been most rapid. Scarcely had he passed the outer gate, when the gaoler entered his cell, and retired, as it had been foreseen he would do, on hearing a noise behind the screen. In about five minutes afterwards he returned; and although the noise was repeated, he looked behind the screen, perceived madame Lavalette, dashed through the door with an exclamation that he was ruined, left the skirts of his coat in her hands when she sought to retain him, and despatched turnkeys and gendarmes in general pursuit. The sedan was overtaken, but it contained only Josephine; and during the night, the houses of every friend, acquaintance, and official connexion, were searched ineffectually. On the following day the barriers were shut; and Madame Lavalette was subjected to examination, treated with cruel severity, and put into solitary confinement. Sir Robert Wilson, and Messrs. Bruce and Hutchinson, all English, having agreed to complete the work of deliverance by conveying the count out of the reach of the French authorities, it was at eight in the morning of January the 10th, 1816, that, after taking leave of his friends the Bressons, Lavalette, in the uniform of the British guards, stepped into Sir R. Wilson's gig, Mr. Hutchinson being on horseback. As the shops were open, and the streets full, the dress of the guards drew a salute from every English soldier they passed; and two officers appeared struck with surprise at seeing a comrade with whom they were unacquainted in company with Sir R. Wilson. On the right and left of the Barrière de Clichy were two guard-houses, occupied respectively by French and English, who drew up under arms as the carriage approached; the former luckily were national guards, of a different quarter of the city to that of which Lavalette was an inhabitant, and who were not likely, therefore, to be acquainted with his person. 'At last, next morning,' continues the fugitive,

'at seven o'clock, we arrived at Valenciennes, the last French city on that line of frontier. I was beginning to feel more easy, when the postmaster told us to go and get our passports examined by the captain of the gendarmerie. Fortunately the officer signed the passports without rising from his bed. We got clear of the gate, and flying along the Brussels road, reached the frontier—we were on the Belgian territory—I was saved!' Lavalette found an asylum first at Munich, and subsequently at Augsburg; and after a six years' outlawry, was permitted to return to France, where he died 1830. A severe blow awaited his return; the reason of Madame Lavalette had been affected by her sufferings and anxiety; and some years passed before she could resume the duties of domestic life.

The Expedition to Algiers, 1816. Lord Exmouth had succeeded, in a former embassy to the savage rulers of the Barbary states, in obtaining the release from slavery of 1792 Christian people of various nations; but the Algerine government soon after, out of revenge, caused the massacre of a number of persons employed in the coral fishery at Bona, a trade under the especial protection of England. A fleet, therefore, was speedily fitted out, to the amount of twenty-five sail, and placed under the command of the same intrepid admiral, himself being in the Queen Charlotte; and this force arrived off Algiers, August 16, 1816. M. Salamé, an Egyptian of respectable character and talents, was sent in a boat to the Mole on that day with a paper of terms; to which if the dey agreed in two hours, he was to hoist a signal, and a deputation would go ashore to conclude a treaty; but should he not give his assent by that time, Salamé was to return to the fleet. Half an hour beyond the appointed moment having elapsed, the messenger ordered the men to row him back: the walls of the town were then bristling with cannon, and the soldiers were at their posts, ready to obey the first command to fire. Perhaps the simple language

of Salamé himself will here best describe what ensued. 'Mr. Burgess, the flag-lieutenant, having agreed with me, we hoisted the signal, that 'no answer had been given,' and began to row away towards the Queen Charlotte. At this time, I was very anxious to get out of danger; for, knowing their perfidious character, and observing that lord Exmouth, on his seeing our signal, gave orders to the fleet to bear up for the attack, I had great fear that they would fire upon us; in short, till I reached the Queen Charlotte, I was more dead than alive. After I had given my report to the admiral, I was surprised to see how his lordship was altered from what I left him in the morning; for I knew his manner was in general mild; and now he seemed to me *all-fightful*, as a fierce lion, which had been chained in its cage, and was set at liberty. His lordship's answer to me was, 'Never mind, we shall see now;' and at the same time he turned towards the officers saying, 'Be ready.' The Queen Charlotte passed through all the enemy's batteries, without firing a gun. There were many thousand Turks and Moors looking on, astonished to see so large a ship coming all at once inside of the mole, without caring for any thing. The ship, in a most gallant manner, took up a position opposite the head of the mole, and we let go the anchor at three quarters past two o'clock, within 100 yards of the battery. About three, the Algerines of the eastern battery fired the first shot at the Impregnable; when Lord Exmouth, having seen only the smoke of the gun, cried, 'That will do; fire, my fine fellows!' Before his lordship had well finished these words, our broadside was given with great cheering, and repeated three times within five minutes, and the other ships did the same. This first fire was so terrible, that more than 500 persons were killed by it; and I saw the people running away under the walls like dogs, walking upon their feet and hands. Upon the commencement of the attack, the sky

became darkened by the smoke, the sun eclipsed, and the horizon dreary. My ears being deafened by the roar of the guns, and his lordship perceiving my situation, he said, 'You have done your duty, Salamé; now go below.' Upon which I began to descend from the quarterdeck, quite terrified, and not sure that I should reach the cockpit alive; for it was most tremendous to hear the crashing of the shot, and to witness the activity and courage of English seamen during battle! While near the hatchway, I saw that the companies of the two guns nearest to it wanted some wadding, but not having it, two of them cut off the breasts of their jackets where the buttons are, and rammed them into the guns instead of wadding. During all the time of the battle not one seaman appeared tired; but, on the contrary, the longer it lasted, the more cheerfulness and pleasure were amongst them. Several of the guns now became so hot that, when fired, they recoiled with their carriages, and fixed the wheels into the flooring of the deck; others were thrown out of their carriages and rendered useless.

'At eleven at night lord Exmouth having observed the destruction of the whole Algerine navy, and the strongest part of their batteries, made signals to the fleet, to move; and thus, with a favourable breeze, we cut our cables and made sail. I went on the poop to observe the effect of our shot on the enemy's batteries, and saw the enemy's ships, together with the storehouses within the mole, burning rapidly. The blaze illuminated all the bay, and the view was really most awful and beautiful. The fortifications were now nothing but heaps of rubbish, and I observed a number of people dragging the dead bodies out. When I met his lordship again, his voice was quite hoarse, and he had two slight wounds, one in the cheek, and the other in the leg. His coat was cut up by musket-balls, and grape; and was behind, as if scissors had slit it to pieces. At one in the

morning, all the fleet having anchored in the middle of the bay, admiral Van Capellan came on board, and after congratulating his lordship, said, 'My lord, I am quite happy if I die now, after having got full satisfaction from these pirates; and we owe a great deal to your lordship for your gallant position with the Queen Charlotte, which was the safety and protection of more than 500 persons of our squadron.' Lord Exmouth then gave a grand supper to the officers of the ship; and then every body went to sleep, almost like dead men.

Salamé was sent off again next day with a letter, demanding the instant delivery to the fleet of the British consul, all Christian slaves in the dominions of the dey, and a sum of money to compensate the losses occasioned to the British; on peril of an assault by bombs, which would go far to annihilate the city. The dey, on the receipt of this, despatched the captain of the port and the Swedish consul, to assure lord Exmouth that all his demands should be satisfied, if due time were allowed. The British consul was sent to the fleet on the 29th, and stated that he had been kept in chains, deprived of his property, and otherwise ill-treated; and he went back to the town, accompanied by captain Brisbane and Salamé, to make arrangements for his final departure. 'At three P. M.,' continues Salamé, 'we arrived inside the mole, where the dockyard, arsenal, and storehouses, had been almost destroyed; and on going, after landing, to the top of the consul's house, we saw that there was not a building which had not been damaged by our shots. About four, the captain of the port came to take us to the dey's palace. The dey was in a narrow gallery, open to the sea, on the third floor, where he was seated with crossed naked legs, on a high Turkish sofa, and having a long pipe in his hand.' After a long conference between captain Brisbane and the dey, during which Salamé acted as inter-

preter, the dey, who had shown much pettishness throughout, agreed to send all the slaves that were in town on board the fleet without delay, together with 382,500 dollars, the cost to which the kings of Sicily and Sardinia had been put by the Algerine piracies; and such slaves as were in the interior were to follow in a day or two. The dey being at length called upon to apologize to the British consul for having treated him in a manner contrary to the law of nations, and to pay him 3000 dollars for the property of which he had been deprived, after a good deal of hesitation, complied; and on the 30th, Salamé was again sent on shore to receive the slaves. 'When I arrived on shore,' says he, 'it was the most pitiful sight to see in what a horrible state these more than 1000 poor wretches were; but it is impossible to describe their joy and cheerfulness. When our boats came inside the mole, I wished to receive them by number, but could not, because they directly began to throw themselves in by crowds; and when we were shoving with them off the shore, they all at once took off their caps, and shouted in Italian, 'Long live the king of England, and the English admiral!' Some of these unfortunate people had been for thirty-five years in slavery; and I only wish to present a notion of their cruel treatment, by mentioning the following: When the Barbary pirates take an European vessel, they put all on board in chains. There are three classes of chains; the one hundred pounders for strong men, the sixty for old men, and the thirty for young persons. These are placed round the body as a sash, with a piece of chain on the right leg, joined by a ring to the foot. Thus these poor slaves must work, sleep, and live always with these chains; the marks of which I have seen round their bodies in deep furrows, which become black, and as hard as bone. Being thus manacled, they are sent to cut stone from the mountains, fell

trees, carry sand and stones for building, or move guns from one place to another.'

When the transports had anchored near the Queen Charlotte, the slaves came on deck, shouting for joy; and they were found to amount to 1083 of all nations. In the end, 128 more were released; which, with the 1792 before recovered by lord Exmouth, made a total of 3003 souls. At length the gallant admiral having received full compensation in money for the expenses of the war, and placed 357,000 dollars on board the *Severn* for the king of Sicily, and 25,000 in the *Heron* for the king of Sardinia, sailed from Algiers with all the fleet, and arrived at Portsmouth on the 6th of October, after an absence from England of only two months and eight days.

Mission to Ashantee, 1817. This powerful barbaric nation of Africa was first known to the Europeans in 1700; but it was not until 1811 that the British, having now the settlement of Cape Coast Castle in its neighbourhood, found it necessary to conciliate Quamina the king. It was agreed therefore by our government, that Mr. Bowditch and three other gentlemen should cross from Cape Coast to Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, where they arrived May 19. The deputation was received with great pomp, and a malefactor instantly put to the torture, 'to gratify the strangers;' the four were then ushered forwards by above 5000 warriors, brandishing their scimitars, and firing guns, towards the ground where the king had stationed himself. 'The king, his tributaries, and captains,' says Mr. Bowditch, 'were resplendent in the distance, surrounded by attendants of every description, and fronted by a mass of warriors. More than a hundred bands burst forth on our arrival, with the peculiar airs of their favourite chiefs; the horns flourished defiance with the beating of innumerable drums and metal instruments, and then yielded

for a while to the soft breathings of long flutes, which were truly harmonious. At least a hundred large umbrellas, which could shelter thirty persons each, were sprung up all down by the bearers with brilliant effect, being made of the most showy cloths and silks, and crowned with crescents, pelicans, elephants, and swords, of gold; while innumerable smaller ones, of various colours and stripes, were crowded in the intervals.

The prolonged flourishes of the horns, and a deafening tumult of drums, announced that we were approaching the king. We were already passing the principal officers of his household: the chamberlain, the gold-coin blower, the captain of the messengers, the captain for royal executions, the captain of the market, the keeper of the royal burial-ground, and the master of the bands, sat surrounded by a retinue and splendour, which bespoke the dignity and importance of their posts. The executioner, a man of immense size, wore a massive gold hatchet on his breast; and the execution-stool was held before him, clotted in blood, and partly covered with a cawl of fat. The king's four linguists were encircled by a splendour inferior to none; and their peculiar insignia, gold canes, were elevated in all directions, tied in bundles, like fasces. The keeper of the treasury added to his own magnificence by the ostentatious display of his service: the blow-pan boxes, scales, and weights, were of solid gold. A delay of some minutes, whilst we severally approached to receive the king's hand, afforded us a thorough view of Quamina. His deportment especially excited my attention: his manners were majestic, yet courteous, and he did not allow his surprise to beguile him for a moment of the composure of the monarch. He appeared about thirty-eight years of age, was somewhat corpulent, and possessed a benevolent countenance. He wore a fillet of

aggy beads round his temples, and had a necklace and bracelets; and his fingers were covered with rings. His waistcloth was of a dark green silk, a pointed diadem was elegantly painted in white on his forehead, and the pattern of an epaulette on each shoulder; and an ornament like a full-blown rose covered his whole breast. His gold ankle-strings were of delicate workmanship, and his sandals, of soft white leather, were embossed with sapphires. He was seated in a low chair, richly ornamented with gold, having a pair of gold castanets on his finger and thumb, which he clapped to enforce silence, while his numerous guards waved elephants' tails and plumes of feathers like a small cloud before him.

Having passed on, and reached the end of the vast place of assembly, we were desired to seat ourselves under a tree, to receive the compliments of the king and all his officers in turn. The chief officers dismounted as they arrived within thirty yards of us, their principal captains preceding them, and a body of soldiers following with their arms reversed; then came their bands, gold canes, pipes, and elephants' tails. The chief, with a small body-guard under his umbrella, was generally supported around the waist by the hands of his favourite slave; whilst captains halloed his warlike deeds and *strong names*, which were reiterated with the voices of stentors by those before and behind. Old captains of secondary rank were carried on the shoulders of strong slaves; but a more interesting sight was presented in the young caboceers, five and six years of age, who, overweighed by ornaments, were carried in the same manner under canopies. A band of Fetish-men, or priests, wheeled round and round as they passed, with amazing velocity. Manner was as various as ornament; some danced by with irresistible buffoonery; some with a gesture and carriage of defiance; one distinguished caboceer performed the war-dance, with a large spear, which grazed us at every bound he made;

but the greater number passed us with order and dignity, some slipping one sandal, some both, some turning round after taking each of us by the hand; the attendants of others knelt before them, throwing dust upon their heads; and the Moors apparently vouchsafed us a blessing. It was nearly eight o'clock before the king approached. It was a beautiful starlight night, and the torches which preceded him displayed the splendour of his regalia, and made the human trophies of the soldiers more awfully imposing. He stopped to inquire our names a second time, and to wish us a good night, which he did in a mild and deliberate manner: and was followed by his aunts, cousins, and others of his family, having rows of fine gold chains around their necks. Numerous chiefs succeeded, and it was long before we were at liberty to retire; when we agreed in estimating the number of warriors we had seen at 30,000.

The party, some time after, were present at the grand annual ceremonial of yam-gathering, which is a species of saturnalia, and a period of complete licence. On one of the days, all the heads of the kings and caboceers whose states had been conquered, from Sai Tootoo to the present reign, were displayed by two parties of executioners, who passed in an impassioned dance, clashing their knives on the skulls, in which sprigs of thyme were inserted to keep the spirits from troubling the king. On another day a large quantity of rum was ordered to be poured into brass pans, in various parts of the town, the crowd pressing around, and drinking like hogs; freemen and slaves, women and children, striking, kicking, and trampling each other under foot, and many falling head foremost into the pans. In less than an hour, excepting the principal men, not a sober person was to be seen, whether man, woman or child! On another day, one hundred culprits were barbarously executed for the amusement of the crowd: several slaves were also sacri-

food over a large brass pan, their blood mingling with the various vegetables and animal matter which is consumed in the ceremony and produce a horrible fumes. At the close of several hours, that their blood may flow into the hole, whence the new pan is taken. Those who cannot afford to kill slaves, take the head of one already sacrificed, and place it on the fire.

As Ashantee is one of the states from which slaves have been commonly taken for our West India settlements, it is fair to reflect upon the substance of Mr. Bowditch's statement in the following passages; and it becomes a question (admitting as we do, the manifest injustice of slavery), whether the exchange of a regulated foreign servitude for a domestic state so fraught with evils of the most malignant kind, be not beneficial, rather than otherwise, to the interests of the coloured tribes. 'The decease of a person is announced by a discharge of musketry proportionate to his rank, or the wealth of his family. In an instant you see a crowd of slaves burst from the house, and run towards the bush, flattering themselves that the hindmost, or those surprised in the house, will furnish the human victims for sacrifice, if they can but secrete themselves until the rite is over. The body is then handsomely dressed in silk and gold, and laid out on the bed, with the richest clothes beside it. One or two slaves are sacrificed at the door of the house. On the death of a king, his brothers, sons, and nephews, affecting temporary insanity, burst forth with muskets, and fire promiscuously among the crowd; even a man of rank, if they meet him, is their victim; nor is their murder of him or of any other visited, or prevented; the scene can scarcely be imagined. Few persons of rank dare to stir from their houses for the first two or three days; but they religiously drive forth all their vassals and slaves, as the most acceptable composition for their own

absence. The king's Ocras are murdered on his tomb, to the number of an hundred or more, and women in attendance. I was assured by several that the offering for Sai Quana was repeated weekly for three months; and that 200 slaves were sacrificed, and twenty-five barrels of powder fired, each time. But the custom for the king's mother, the regent of the kingdom during the invasion of the Fantees, is most celebrated. The king himself devoted 3000 victims, and twenty-five barrels of powder! The large towns furnished 100 victims, and twenty barrels of powder each, and most of the smaller towns ten victims, and two barrels of powder each. Mr. Bowditch estimates the number of military in Ashantee at 204,000.

Shipwrecks of the Alceste and Medusa, 1817. The two melancholy events in question are brought together for the sake of contrasting the good consequences of discipline, moral management, and a trust in Providence, with the evils resulting from the neglect of order, and an attempt to live without God in the world. Lord Amherst was returning from his embassy to China, on board the Alceste frigate, Captain Maxwell, when the vessel struck, February 18, 1817, on a reef of sunk rocks, near Gaspar island, and remained immovable. It was soon too evident, from the injuries she had received, that any attempt to get her off would be attended with fatal consequences; so that the best bower-anchor was let go to keep her fast, and the pumps were abandoned. The ambassador and his suite, with a party of marines under captain Hoppner, embarked as soon as possible for Java, in the barge and cutter, to obtain assistance; when the captain and crew contrived to fix their abode on the island of Palo Leat, and to gather from the wreck a sufficiency of stores to supply the whole, by an excellent management, until the arrival of the Ternate. This vessel, despatched by Lord Amherst, conveyed the party safely from Palo

Leat, March 3rd, and landed them safely on the 9th at Batavia. While on the island, they were forcibly attacked by the piratical Malays, who burned the wreck, and occasioned still greater deprivations to the crew; but captain Maxwell, by his admirable arrangements, preserved his officers and men from the horrors of anarchy, and instructed them, by his own example, to rely on that Power which is able to save, however dire the calamity that oppresses. Far different from this was the conduct of a large portion on board *The Medusa*, a French frigate of forty-four guns, when she met with a misfortune similar to that of the *Alceste*. The *Medusa* had sailed in June, 1816, from Aix in France, with 400 persons, to take possession of the settlement on the African coast between cape Blanco and the mouth of the Gambia, ceded by Britain on the peace of 1815. Off cape Finisterre, the ship stranded on a sand-bank, June 22. Nothing could exceed the consternation of all on board; and as six boats could not take on board 400 men, the captain soon drew the plan of a raft, capable, as it was said, of carrying 200 men, with provisions *for all*; the crews of the boats (the other 200), to come at meal-time to the raft for their rations. The soldiers were the first sent on the raft: they wished to take with them their muskets and some rounds of ammunition, but this was opposed, though the officers kept their fowling-pieces and pistols. In all, there were on the raft 150 persons, twenty-nine of whom were sailors; there was one woman, and the remainder were soldiers. At 7 on the morning of the 5th of July the signal of departure was given, when four of the boats stood out to sea, and the raft soon followed, towed by the barge and longboat. The party on the raft, however, were sadly off for provisions; several casks of flour, six barrels of wine, and two small casks of water had been put upon it; but the weight had caused it to sink so much, that it

became necessary to throw the flour into the sea. The people were packed so closely that they could not stir, and every where, except in the centre, the water rose as high as the waist.

After proceeding some leagues, first the barge and then the longboat threw off the tow-rope, notwithstanding the urgent appeals of the poor creatures on the raft, so that the machine was left alone on the vast ocean. 'Our consternation,' says a survivor, 'was beyond description: the soldiers and sailors immediately gave themselves up to despair; nor could we of the ship's company avoid sharing their fears, though we showed more fortitude. When quiet was a little restored, we began to feel severely the calls of hunger; and after we had taken our first meal, which consisted of biscuit-paste and wine, we fixed on the quantity of provisions which should be daily distributed to each man. Many of the officers now employed themselves in encouraging the soldiers to take revenge on their companions when they should reach the shore. Though surrounded by dangers, they felt no gratitude to the Almighty for having supported them thus long, but, at a moment when they most needed his protecting arm, their minds were filled with anger and revenge, and they uttered nothing but expressions of rage. In the evening a better spirit prevailed; our prayers were directed with fervour to Heaven, and we derived from this salutary exercise the comfort of hope. Night came on, the wind freshened, and the sea rose. The waves struck with violence against the raft, and always threw down those that were unaccustomed to the sea, as indeed were most of our companions. In the middle of the night the weather became worse; the waves now rolled over us and threw us down with violence; and the cries of the people mingled awfully with the roaring of the waters. About seven in the morning the sea became calm, and the wind fell; and we then found that twelve had slipped between the openings of

of their situation by drinking. Rushing towards a cask of wine, and making a large hole in it, they drank a considerable quantity; and in the empty state of their stomachs, the wine so excited them, that they resolved to rid themselves of their officers, and then to destroy the raft. With this design, one of them moved to the edge with a boarding hatchet, and began to strike at the ropes: we therefore rushed upon this ringleader, and though he made a desperate resistance, despatched him. Some passengers and subalterns now happily joined us, for the mutineers were going to make a general attack on us, and the fight became general. During the contest, in which several perished, the wretches threw into the sea, together with her husband, the unfortunate woman who was on board; Messrs. Correard and Lavillette, however, plunged and saved them, and the tumult being shortly after, to all appearance, subdued, many asked pardon of us on their knees. But when almost midnight, the soldiers again rushed upon us with the fury of madmen; and such of them as had no arms, bit their adversaries in the most cruel manner. Having at length repulsed some, and appeased others, we were again for a time in peace.

‘The manner in which we were severally affected this night deserves to be mentioned. Mr. Savigny had most

officers said to him, ‘I have been deserted but don’t be afraid, I have written to the governor, and we shall be in safety.’

Illusions did not last because the noise and confusion constantly broke the calm we returned on us, and allowed force, during the whole night.

‘On the return of the ship, that sixty-five had perished that night; but we had not lost our party, and not a This wonderful difference ascribed to the comparative mind we displayed; and being proof of the power of resisting evil, if he way to despair. We

one cask of wine to be divided among sixty men, and it was not before to put ourselves to rest. For forty-eight hours we taken nothing solid, and on making every possible catch some fish; we made the soldier’s tags, but drew them under the raft bayonet also, to catch the shark bit at and straightened tried to support existence on the dead bodies of the mutineers; while others gnawed their belts and cartridge day was calm, and our

and thirst, standing in water up to our knees, and not able to take rest but in that position, we bore in our looks the marks of approaching death. The morning of the fourth day after our departure from the frigate, presented to our view the dead bodies of twelve of our companions who had expired during the night: all these with the exception of one were committed to the deep. This day also was fine, and our minds again began to indulge in hopes; about four o'clock in the evening, a shoal of flying-fish passed under the raft, and a great number of them got entangled in the spaces between the timbers; we threw ourselves upon them and caught about 200. We immediately returned thanks to God for this unhoped for relief; and felt greatly refreshed by the meal they afforded us. Had it not been for another rebellion, we might have passed a comfortable night; but some Spaniards, Italians, and negroes, who had hitherto taken no part with the mutineers, formed a plot to throw us all into the sea, in order to get possession of a bag of money, which we had tied to the mast-head, as a common fund to be made use of, should we reach the land! We were again, therefore, obliged to take arms, and were supported by the sailors, who seized the ringleader and threw him into the sea. A desperate combat ensued, and the fatal raft was quickly piled with dead bodies; but at length the mutineers being repulsed, and quiet restored, we endeavoured to take a little sleep.

On the fifth morning, we found our number reduced to thirty, we had lost five of our faithful sailors, and those who still survived were in a most deplorable state. The sea-water had stripped the skin from our feet and legs; we were covered with wounds and bruises, which, constantly irritated by the salt-water, gave us intolerable pain; only twenty of us were able to stand upright, or move about; and we had only wine enough for four days, and scarcely a dozen fish. Twelve, and amongst them the woman, were

now so ill, that there was no hope of their surviving; and as they might live long enough to reduce our stock to a very low ebb, we came to the horrible and unjustifiable resolution of throwing them into the sea. Three sailors and a soldier took the task on themselves; and while it was being executed, we turned away our eyes from the awful sight, trusting that, in thus endeavouring to prolong our own lives, we were shortening theirs but a few hours. This gave us the means of subsistence for six additional days. On the ninth day, a white butterfly, of the kind so common in France, flew over our heads, and settled on the sail, inspiring us with the pleasing hope that we were near land: some of us already were looking on this wretched morsel with desire, whilst others, considering it the harbinger of our deliverance, took it under their protection. Trifling as was the circumstance of an insect settling upon our raft, it animated us to fresh exertions. We had recourse to every expedient which might lessen the discomfort of our situation. We detached some planks from the raft, and made a sort of platform on which to lie down; and various devices were resorted to, to relieve our dreadful thirst. It will scarcely be believed that, on one occasion, we contended for two small phials of a liquor for cleaning the teeth, which were husbanded with the greatest care, two drops of it producing a delightfully soothing sensation. One of us had found an empty bottle, which still retained some scent of the perfume it had formerly held; to smell at this for an instant appeared the highest enjoyment. Some kept their wine, and sucked it slowly through a quill; the intoxication, however, it produced upon their debilitated frames was remarkable, even inciting them to angry disputes, and to destroy themselves.

On the 16th of July, eight of us resolved on trying to reach the coast, to which we supposed ourselves near, on a smaller raft, which we constructed of boards and spars; but when tried,

is immediately upset. We therefore gave it up, resolving to wait upon the raft for death; which, unless we were shortly relieved, could not be very distant. On the morning of the 17th, the sun shone brightly; and when we had addressed our prayers to the Almighty, we distributed the rations of wine. Whilst each was taking his portion, an officer discovered a ship in the horizon, and with a shout of joy informed us of it. It is impossible to describe the joy we felt at the sight; each looked upon his delivery as certain, and returned repeated thanks to God. Still, in the midst of these hopes, we were apprehensive we might not be seen. We straightened some hoops, and to the end fastened some handkerchiefs of different colours. We then united our efforts, and raised a man to the top of the mast, who waved these flags. For half an hour we were suspended between hope and fear; some of us thought that the vessel was coming nearer, whilst others, with more accuracy, asserted that she was making sail away from us. In fact, in a short time the vessel disappeared. We now resigned ourselves to despair; envying even those whom death had taken away from the sufferings we were now to undergo.

'We had passed two hours in depressing reflections, when the master-gunner, who was in the fore part of the raft, suddenly uttered a loud cry of 'we are saved,—the brig is close to us!' We rushed from an awning under which we had been, and found that she was in fact only a mile and a half distant, and was steering directly towards us under a press of sail. Joy now succeeded to despair, we embraced each other and burst into tears; even those whose wounds rendered them incapable of more exertion, dragged themselves to the side of the raft, in order to enjoy the sight of the vessel, which we now recognised to be the *Argus*. The crew waved their hats, to express their pleasure at having come to our relief; and in a short time we were all in safety on board the brig, where we met some of those who had

been saved in the boats. Every one was affected to see our miserable condition: ten out of the fifteen were scarcely able to move; the skin was entirely stripped from our limbs, our eyes were sunk, our beards long, and we were in the most emaciated condition: but the care of the surgeon and the kind attention of every one on board, soon wrought in us the most favourable change.

'A party in a schooner reached the *Medusa* fifty-two days after she had been abandoned; but what was their astonishment to find, that three of the miserable wretches left on board had outlived their sufferings, though apparently now at the point of death. They had kept in separate corners of the wreck, which they never quitted but to look for food; and this latterly consisted of tallow and a little bacon. If on these occasions they accidentally met, they used to run at each other with drawn knives; so completely had selfishness stifled that sympathy which fellow sufferers are disposed to feel for each other. It is a fact worthy of record, that so long as these men abstained from strong liquor, they were able to support the hardships of their situation in a surprising manner; but when they began to drink brandy, their strength rapidly diminished. The poor fellows received all the attention which their situation required, and were safely conveyed by the schooner to Senegal.'

Accession of Bernadotte to the crown of Sweden, 1818.

The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1818, held to announce that the troops of foreign nations might be withdrawn from France, on account of the restoration of tranquillity.

The Resuscitation of Pompeii and Herculaneum, 1820. It was in 1713, that actual proof was obtained of the situation of these two cities, when some labourers, in digging a well, struck upon a statue on the benches of a theatre of Herculaneum. The king of Sicily hereupon directed that every thing brought from beneath should be deposited in his palace; and in a few

years a work in six vols. folio was published, giving an account of such discoveries. Herculaneum had been doubly sealed down by torrents of lava that had issued subsequently to the eruption of 79, A. D.; insomuch that a mass of gray stone, twenty-four feet in depth, had been formed every where over it; while Pompeii had only loose ashes above it. Galleries, therefore, were cut to the principal buildings of Herculaneum, and a few of them were cleared; but at Pompeii the labourers, in very recent years, have been far more successful. The latter city, after remaining concealed for nearly 1800 years, has been almost wholly recovered; and, with the exception of roofs, its houses look as if they had been tenanted but yesterday, and as if they might be inhabited to-morrow. That it is the ancient city of Pompeii, is proved by an inscription over one of the principal gates. In all instances, the roofs have been destroyed by the matter that pressed upon them. The interior walls of the better classes of houses are generally ornamented with mouldings in stucco, and with paintings of fruit, flowers, landscapes, figures, or arabesques; and, where only a plain surface was painted, the colours, such as green, blue, and purple, are as fresh as if the painter's brush had just passed over them. In many instances, the floors of the halls and rooms are covered with mosaic. On the threshold of one private house there is written, in mosaic and large capital letters, the Roman term of salutation, *salve* (welcome). At the entrance of another house there is spiritedly represented in mosaic, on the floor, the figure of a fierce chained dog in the act of flying at some one, and the words *cave canem* (beware of the dog) inscribed beneath. The chain and the jagged collar are much the same we now use; and the dog is not unlike the Corsican bull-dog, much prized by the modern Italians as a house-dog, on account of its strength, boldness, and ferocity. In some cases, the mosaic work that covers the rooms like a carpet, merely represents a mi-

nutely dotted surface of pieces of black and white marble, with or without a fancy border round it. In other cases, more colours are employed; and fantastic and elegant patterns delineated. The house of Sallust has been clearly ascertained; also those of various official personages, such as the *quæstor*; while shops of different artisans, with the implements of their trade, have been admirably identified.

'The remains of Pompeii,' says Mr. Matthews, 'afford a truly interesting spectacle: it is like a resurrection from the dead: the progress of time and decay is arrested, and you are admitted to the temples, the theatres, and the domestic privacy of a people, who have ceased to exist for seventeen centuries. Nothing is wanting but the inhabitants. Even now, a morning's walk through the solemn silent streets of Pompeii, will give you a livelier idea of their modes of life than all the books in the world. They seem, like the French of the present day, to have existed only in *public*. Their theatres, temples, basilicas, forums, are on the most splendid scale; but in their private dwellings we discover little or no attention to comfort. The houses have a small court, round which the rooms are built, which are rather cells than rooms; the greater part are without windows, and receive light only from the door. There are no chimneys; the smoke of the kitchen, which is usually low and dark, must have found its way through a hole in the ceiling. The doors are so low, that you are obliged to stoop to pass through them. The stucco paintings, with which the walls are covered, are but little injured; and upon being wetted, they appear as fresh as ever. Brown, red, yellow, and blue, are the prevailing colours. If it were not for the pilfering propensity of visitors, we might have seen every thing as it really was left at the time of the great calamity: even to the skeleton, which was found with a purse of gold in its hand, trying to run away from the impending destruction, and exhibiting 'the ruling passion strong in death.' The amphi-

theatre is very perfect, as indeed are the other two theatres intended for dramatic representations; though it is evident that they had sustained some injury from the earthquake, which had already much damaged this devoted town, before its final destruction by the eruption of Vesuvius. The paintings on the walls of the amphitheatre represent the combats of gladiators and wild beasts, the dens of which remain just as they were. The two theatres are as close together as our Drury-lane and Covent-garden. The larger one, which might have contained 5000 persons, like the amphitheatres, had no roof, but was open to the light of day. The stage is very much circumscribed: there is no depth; and there are consequently no side scenes: the form and appearance are like those of our own theatres when the drop scene is down. In the back scene of the Roman stage, which, instead of canvass, is composed of unchangeable brick and marble, are three doors; and there are two others on the sides, answering to our stage-doors. The little theatre is in better preservation than the other; and it is supposed this was intended for musical entertainments. The temple of Isis has suffered little injury: the statues, indeed, have been taken away; but you see the very altar on which the victims were offered; and you may now ascend without ceremony the private stairs which led to the sanctum sanctorum of the goddess.

'The streets are very narrow; the marks of wheels on the pavement show that carriages were in use; but there must have been some regulation to prevent their meeting each other; for one carriage would have occupied the whole of the street, except the narrow *trottoir*, raised on each side for foot passengers, for whose accommodation there are also raised stepping-stones, in order to cross from one side to the other. There is often an emblem over the door of a house, that determines the profession of its former owner. The word *Salve* on one, seems to denote that it was an inn, as we have in our

days the sign of *The Salvation*. Many of the paintings on the walls are very elegant in taste and design; and they often assist us in ascertaining the uses for which the different rooms were intended. For example, in the baths we find Tritons and Naiads; in the bed-chambers Morpheus scatters his poppies; and in the eating-room a sacrifice to Æsculapius teaches us, 'that we should eat to live, and not live to eat.' In one of these rooms are the remains of a triclinium. A baker's shop is as plainly indicated, as if the loaves were now at his window. There is a mill for the grinding of corn, and an oven for baking; and the surgeon and druggist have also been traced, by the quality of the articles found in their respective dwellings.

'But the most complete specimen that we have of an ancient residence, is the villa which has been discovered at a small distance without the gate. It is on a more splendid scale than any of the houses in the town; and it has been preserved with scarcely any injury. Some have imagined it to be the Pompeianum, or villa of Cicero. Be this as it may, it must have belonged to a man of taste. Situated on a sloping bank, the front entrance opens as it were into the first floor; below which, on the garden side, into which the house looks (for the door is the only aperture on the road side) is a ground floor, with spacious arcades and open rooms, all facing the garden; and above are the sleeping-rooms. The walls and ceilings of this villa are ornamented with paintings, all which have a relation to the uses of the apartments in which they are placed. In the middle of the garden there is a reservoir of water, surrounded by columns; and the ancient well still remains. Though we have many specimens of Roman glass in their drinking-vessels, it has been doubted whether they were acquainted with the use of it for windows. Swinburne, however, in describing Pompeii says, 'in the window of a bedchamber some panes of glass are still remaining.' This

would seem to decide the question; but they remain no longer. The host was fond of conviviality, if we may judge from the dimensions of his cellar, which extends under the whole of the house and the arcades also; and many of the amphoræ remain, in which the wine was stowed. It was here that the skeletons of twenty-seven poor wretches were found, who took refuge from the fiery shower that would have killed them at once, to suffer the lingering torments of being starved to death. It was in one of the porticoes

leading to the outward entrance, that the bones, supposed to be those of the master of the house, were found with a key in one hand, and a purse of gold in the other. So much for Pompeii! I lingered amongst its ruins till the close of evening; and have seldom passed a day with feelings of interest so strongly excited, or with impressions of the transient nature of all human possessions so strongly enforced, as by the solemn solitudes of this resuscitated town.'

EMINENT PERSONS.

Napoleon Buonaparte, born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, 1769, was second son of an advocate of considerable reputation. His mother, Letitia Ramolini, was noted for her beauty, and the masculine spirit she displayed, when the Corsicans under Paoli were struggling to avoid French domination. Joseph was their eldest son, then Napoleon, Lucien, Louis, and Jerome, and three girls, Eliza, Caroline, and Pauline. When the emperor of Austria, in after times, would have found the descent of the Buonapartes from some petty princes of Treviso, his son-in-law replied, 'I am the Rodolph of my race!' and he silenced a professional genealogist with, 'Friend, my patent dates from Monte Notte,' his first battle. The young Napoleon was placed at seven in the military school at Brienne, where Pichegru was his monitor, and where he first acquired the French language; and it has been thought that the hauteur displayed towards him as a foreigner by the young French gentlemen of this seminary, had a strong effect on the first political feelings of the future emperor of France. Certain it is, he looked upon the French as an inferior people, and secretly prided himself on being born an Italian. At fifteen he was removed to the *Ecole Militaire* at Paris, a wonderful compliment to his talents; and in two years spent there, he greatly advanced in mathematics, devoured history, and made Ossian his constant companion.

In his sixteenth year, after being examined by the great Laplace, he was made a lieutenant of artillery, and soon after captain, but unemployed; and he witnessed the storming of the Tuileries by the revolutionary mob, observing, when he saw Louis XVI. come into a balcony with the red cap of liberty on his head, that 'his cannon ought to have kept the rabble out.' So poor was he at this juncture, that he proposed to his friend De Bourrienne to take a house or two on lease, and sub-let them to make a little money. In 1793 Napoleon was in Corsica, just as an order had come from Paris to deprive Paoli of his office of governor. Paoli raised a civil commotion, and endeavoured to enlist Napoleon on his side; but the latter joined the French in their assault upon Torre di Capitello, which proving unsuccessful, he was banished with his whole family from the island. In the height of his power he seemed to keep this disgrace in memory, for he never did any thing for Corsica, save defraying the cost of a small fountain at Ajaccio.

After residing some time in France, he was appointed by the revolutionary government to conduct the siege of Toulon, then defended by the French royalists and English; and by great perseverance he gained possession of the place. But he was soon unattached again, and was long in actual distress at Paris, projecting all sorts of plans for immediate

subsistence. Happening to witness general Menou's timid conduct, when sent to harangue the national guards, who had assembled to compel a change of government, he was called on to give evidence before the convention; and Barras, one of the directors, who had seen his exertions at Toulon, proposed that 'his little Corsican' should meet the tumultuous soldiery on the following morning. It was on October 4th, 1795, that 30,000 national guards advanced by different streets, at two in the afternoon, to the siege of the palace. Buonaparte gave orders to fire, and in an instant the artillery swept the streets, and before nightfall every thing was quiet. In a few days after this exploit, the director of it was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of France. It was now that he married Josephine de la Pagerie, a West Indian, the widow of viscount Beauharnois; and in ten days after that event he fought the battle of Monte Notte, near the Alps, against the Sardinians and Austrians, a victory which was succeeded by one at the bridge of Lodi, and the conqueror's entrance into Milan. Venice, Rome, Tuscany, successively fell to the French; and the battle of the bridge of Arcola, where Buonaparte was nearly suffocated in a bog, that of Rivoli, where he had three horses shot under him, and that of Mantua, all ended in favour of the invading army. The treaty of Campo-Formio, 1797, at length gave quiet to the Austrians, who thereupon ceded Flanders and the boundary of the Rhine to France.

Buonaparte was received at Paris with strong marks of approbation by the people, though rather jealously regarded by the directory. He courted no one, but passed all his evenings in mathematical studies, and was, February 1798, engaged in planning an attack upon England; but in May, the fleet which had been prepared for the descent, took its course towards Egypt, seizing on Malta on its route. After capturing Alexandria, Buonaparte declared himself a Mahometan, and advanced towards the Pyramids; and

there the Mamluks, who were in great force, were cut to pieces, in their spirited but rash attempt to stop his progress. It being the custom of the Mamluks, who are all nearly on an equality, to carry their wealth about them, an immense booty was obtained by rifling their dead bodies, a single corpse often making a soldier's fortune. At the moment that Cairo had fallen to the invaders, Nelson arrived with the British fleet off Alexandria, engaged the French, and after a most obstinate battle in the bay of Aboukir, completely annihilated their force. The French Admiral's ship, *L'Orient*, blew up, with all on board; and Nelson obtained, what he himself called, 'not a victory, but a conquest.' When Buonaparte heard of Nelson's success, 'The fates,' he exclaimed, 'have decreed to France the empire of the land: to England that of the sea.'

Affecting to have rescued Egypt from the Mamluks' usurpation, the French general, without showing a desire to place any other party on the throne, set about improving the country: canals, that had been shut up for centuries, were opened; the waters of the Nile flowed again where the skill of the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies had guided them; property was secured, cultivation extended, and extraordinary improvements were effected. While thus occupied, Buonaparte learned that the Turks were preparing to attack him; upon which he hastened into Syria, and soon possessed himself of El Arish and Gaza. At Jaffa, however, the Turks made a resolute defence; but when the French eventually entered it, savage indeed was their conduct. Part of the garrison (1200 men) were marched out three days after their surrender, divided into small parties, and bayoneted to a man; and Buonaparte justified the atrocious act, on the plea that he could not afford soldiery to guard so many prisoners. The siege of St. Jean d'Acre, which was defended by the pacha of Syria, Achmet Djeddar, aided by the English admiral, Sir Sydney Smith, had lasted

sixty days, when the plague broke out amongst the French, and compelled their retreat upon Jaffa, towards Egypt. The hospitals of Jaffa were soon crowded with the sick; and it is affirmed by de Bourrienne, the general's own friend, that Buonaparte gave instructions for the poisoning of *sixty* French patients, whom the surgeons considered unlikely to recover; an order which was carried into effect. At length, with his remaining troops, the general reached Cairo; but he hastily repaired to Aboukir, on finding that a Turkish force had landed there, and, with Murat and Bienne as sub-commanders, completely routed it, taking captive Mustapha Pacha, the general, and putting hors de combat 18,000 Turks, being the precise number of the attacking army. This victory had scarcely been gained, when the letter of the abbé Sieyès, alluded to in the account of the revolution, caused Buonaparte to hasten with all secrecy to Paris. He left Kleber as his successor in the command; touched at Corsica, but did not long stay there, finding, as he facetiously observed, 'that it rained cousins;' and having passed through the midst of the English fleet unseen at midnight, reached Paris, where he was received by the directory with an awe, which prevented them from inquiring why he had quitted his command and duty. This was in 1799.

That the star of Buonaparte was actually in the ascendant, was now evident enough. His brother Lucien had been elected president of the council of 500, the military openly rejoiced at his successes, two at least in the directory were his stanch friends, and there was no individual or party in the state, possessed of influence sufficient to oppose, with effect, any project he might devise for his own aggrandizement. Accordingly, upon the application of many regiments to be reviewed by him, he fixed November 10th, 1799, for a large assembly of officers at his house in the Rue de la Victoire, at six in the morning. Moreau, Macdonald, Ber-

nadotte, were amongst those who thus allowed their regiments to be reviewed in the Champ Elysées. At the same time the council of ancients assembled in the Tuileries, and decreed that the chief command of the armies should be given to general Buonaparte; upon which the general entered, and in person declared the directory dissolved. Buonaparte now took up his residence in the Tuileries, and on the 19th, the members of both legislative assemblies were summoned thither, and placed in different apartments. Having brought the council of ancients over, the general suddenly entered the room of the 500, accompanied by four grenadiers. A fierce outcry arose of, 'Drawn swords in the sanctuary of the laws? Let him be proclaimed a traitor!' and many members rushed on the intruder, one even aiming a dagger at his throat, from which danger the grenadiers forcibly saved him, carrying him out breathless. Calm in the field of battle, Buonaparte had no idea of the horrors of civil commotion, which he was thus provoking; and he came out staggering and stammering from the 500, exclaiming to the soldiery, 'I offered them victory and fame, and they have answered me with daggers.' In an instant after, the president Lucien came out, much in the same manner: he had refused to pronounce his brother an outlaw, and having leaped upon a horse in the court, thus addressed the astonished soldiery, amongst whom were standing his brother, Augereau, Talleyrand, and Sieyès: 'Factious men with daggers interrupt the deliberations of the senate; I authorize you to employ force.' Upon this appeal, Le Clerc, by Napoleon's order, rushed with a party of grenadiers into the room of the 500, and after the council had been driven out, some of the members escaping by the windows, Napoleon, Sieyès, and Ducos, were declared provisional consuls of the state. Thus terminated, without bloodshed, the revolution of the 19th of Brumaire; and on the 14th of December it was agreed

that Buonaparte should be consul-in-chief, and all power be virtually lodged in his person.

It was in 1800 that Napoleon resolved on the adventurous plan of crossing the Alps to attack the Austrians on their own ground in Italy. With 60,000 men he passed the great St. Bernard, his main body, of which he himself took care, having the gigantic task of surmounting, with the artillery, the huge barriers of the Alpine chain. At St. Pierre all traces of a road disappeared. We have to think of an army, horse and foot, laden with all the munitions of a campaign, having to be urged up and along ridges of rock covered by eternal snow, where the goat-herd, the chamois-hunter, and the smuggler, are alone accustomed to venture, and to find a track amidst precipices, where to slip a foot is death. The guns were dismounted, and grooved into the trunks of trees; and not less than 100 soldiers were sometimes occupied in dragging up a single cannon. The consul travelled mostly on foot, cheering on those who had the care of the great guns; but the fatigue undergone by one and all is not to be described. The descent from the heights they had gained was not less difficult than the ascent: the horses, mules, and guns were to be let down one slippery steep after another, while the officers, and even Buonaparte himself, were content to slide down *seated* from time to time, for nearly 100 yards together. The Austrian troops at Châtillon received the onset of the invaders with about as much surprise as if they had dropped from the clouds; and at Marengo the French soon after gained a decisive victory over the Austrian general Melas, who brought 40,000 men into the field. As by this one battle the consul had regained nearly all that the French had lost in 1799, he hurried back to Paris, after granting an armistice to Melas.

It was now that many fruitless attempts were made by the adherents of the exiled Bourbons to assassinate the

ambitious general: amongst others by the ignition of a barrel of gunpowder, at a point where his coach was about to pass to the theatre. But intelligence soon arrived at Paris of Abercrombie's complete defeat of the French army in Egypt, March 1801; and all Napoleon's rage being thereupon directed towards Great Britain, 100,000 men were in a few weeks assembled on the coast of France, preparatory to a descent upon England. That hazardous attempt, however, was never made, and a treaty of peace was signed, 1802, between the two nations at Amiens. Buonaparte now occupied himself in consolidating his power. He restored the French church, though he declared himself an unbeliever; allowed the pope to appoint clergy to the vacant benefices; and drew up the 'Code Napoleon,' the first uniform system of laws which the French monarchy ever possessed, and which at this day forms the rule of a great portion of Europe. He also instituted the Legion of Honour, with large national domains for its maintenance, and a cross, which entitled the wearer to certain precedence and a pension. His party next proposed, and carried the point, that Napoleon should be consul for life. As respected foreign nations, the ambitious consul seemed to consider all Europe so completely humbled before him, that it was no longer necessary to conceal his views, or retard their execution. Before the treaty of Amiens had been signed, he caused himself to be declared president of the Italian republic; and he then ominously took possession of the isle of Elba, reserved Piedmont, kept Holland in his grasp, entered Switzerland, and annihilated its liberty, and authoritatively disposed of the affairs of Germany, as if he had been sovereign of the empire. He also insisted that England should resign Malta to its knights. These, and a variety of other outrages, equally offensive and unjustifiable, at last roused the spirit of the British nation, and hostilities re-

commenced between the two countries, May 1803.

When the British, as supreme on the ocean, had seized several French vessels before any formal declaration of war, all the English who happened at the moment to be in France, were put under arrest. Mortier overran Hanover, and the invasion of England was again planned. But the spirited conduct of the British on this occasion, raising in an instant a regular army of 100,000 men, a militia of 80,000, and volunteer corps to the amount of 350,000, and sending Nelson with his immense fleet to watch and sweep the channel between the countries, put an end to French hopes; and Napoleon's attention was again occupied in detecting conspiracies against his own life. Pichegru, a general who was known to favour the cause of the Bourbons, and captain Wright, an Englishman, were soon after found dead in their prisons: while the innocent and noble duc d'Enghien was kidnapped in a neutral territory (Baden), brought to Vincennes, and shot in the night after a mock trial; a transaction which must for ever stain with the deepest die the name of Buonaparte. On the 18th of May, 1804, the consul assumed the Imperial Dignity; and in the cathedral of Nôtre Dame, taking the crowns from the hands of the pope, placed them himself upon his own and his consort's (Josephine's) head. In May, 1805, he repaired to Milan, and there received the iron crown of the Lombard monarchs, styling himself king of Italy. Sweden, Russia, and Austria now united with England to free from French rule Holland, Switzerland, Sardinia, Italy, and the North German states. Napoleon, according to his practice when war was declared against him, rushed to the scene where he was most likely to surprise his enemies; and he had the good fortune to shut up the Austrian general, Mack, with 20,000 troops, in the garrison of Ulm, which surrendered without a blow. Massena was operating in Italy with success against the archduke

Charles of Austria, and 60,000 men; while marshal Ney completely defeated the archduke John in the Tyrol. Murat and Augereau were with large forces in Bohemia and Swabia; and Buonaparte, triumphant, and without a battle, entered Vienna, November 1805. He was here acquainted that Nelson had totally destroyed the combined Spanish and French fleets at Trafalgar, and that Spain had joined his enemies.

Intelligence so disastrous, however, served as a new stimulus to Napoleon's energies. He quitted Vienna, and advanced on the plain between Brunn and the village of Austerlitz, determined to bring the united Russians and Austrians to a contest. Lannes, Soult, Bernadotte, Murat, Oudenot, and Davoust, were in command under him; and on the other side were the emperors of Russia and Austria, with the archdukes Charles and John. The sun rose with uncommon brilliancy on the 2nd of December, and from the issue of the day's conflict, the 'sun of Austerlitz' has long since passed into a proverb amongst the French. From the heights, the allied emperors were doomed to witness, on this fatal day, the total ruin of their armies. It was with the greatest difficulty they rallied some fragments of their forces around them, and effected their retreat; 20,000 prisoners, forty pieces of artillery, and all the Russian standards, remained with the conqueror. Such was what the French delighted to call 'the battle of the Emperors.' A treaty soon followed this decisive victory. Russia returned home, and Austria yielded Venice to the French kingdom of Italy, and the Tyrol to Bavaria. Joseph Buonaparte was now made king of Naples; Murat grand duke of Berg; Napoleon's sister Eliza, princess of Lucca; Pauline, princess of Gustalla; and Louis Buonaparte, king of Holland. A new order of nobility was created: Talleyrand, Bernadotte, and others, were made princes; the most distinguished marshals received the title of duke; and a long array of counts filled the lower steps of the throne; all with exten-

sive grants of land in the conquered countries.

In 1806, a bookseller, named Palm, a subject of the king of Prussia, was seized by Buonaparte's emissaries for a libel upon him, and shot. All Germany was in an uproar on hearing of so unjust an act; and the king of Prussia, who had long wished to shake off the French yoke, now joined the allies. Napoleon instantly marched to Nuremberg, the residence of Palm, and principal store-place of the Prussians, blew up the magazines there, and completely defeated the Prussian forces at Jena, under the old duke of Brunswick, who was early carried off the field wounded in the face, and was refused by the heartless victor a death-bed in his native city. Napoleon entered Berlin, and as had been his practice in every conquered city, sent off the best statues and pictures of the royal galleries to Paris, depriving even the mausoleum of Frederick the Great of the hero's sword and orders. Napoleon next advanced against the Russians, and having beat their forces at Friedland, the emperor Alexander sued for peace, which was granted, and ratified by the emperors upon a raft on the river Niemen, near Tilsit; a meeting which ended in a singular friendship, inasmuch as it was agreed that Napoleon should espouse Alexander's sister, and that the two should divide Europe between them! England now saw France, Austria, Russia, and Prussia league to destroy her commerce, by what Napoleon termed the 'continental system'; whereby no British manufactures were to be received into either of those states. Earl Cathcart was instantly despatched with a fleet, to compel the Danes to surrender their shipping, lest it should fall into the hands of Napoleon; and after bombarding Copenhagen, was allowed to carry away the whole, to the inexpressible disappointment of the French emperor.

Under the plea of compelling Spain to adopt the continental system, Napoleon sent a large force into that country and Portugal. John, king of

Portugal departed as speedily as possible, with all his family, to his colony Brazil; and Charles IV. of Spain forced by the French to abdicate crown in favour of Joseph Buonaparte when Murat was raised to the throne of Naples. This was in 1808. By the middle of the year, however, Spaniards rose in small parties against their invaders; so that no French soldier dared to go out alone, and streets of most towns were red in the morning with the assassinations of the previous night. Still the main body of the Spaniards were in alliance with the oppressors; and when Sir Arthur Wellesley landed in the bay of Mondego, found Junot ready to oppose him with an immense force. Sir Arthur drove the marshal back upon Lisbon; but was in consequence of the convention of Cintra, Sir Hew Dalrymple was called before a court-martial in England. Sir Arthur subpoenaed as a witness, command devolved on Sir John Moore, Napoleon, who had left Paris for England to be assured, in an interview with emperor of Russia, that no assault would be apprehended on his side, hurried towards Spain; and having entered both Saragossa and Madrid, advanced to meet Sir John. But Soult already in array against the English who retreated towards Corunna, hearing of the superior numbers of the enemy. At Corunna, Moore engaged Soult, but fell mortally wounded, in January, 1809; his troops nevertheless embarked for England in safety, the French, in admiration of his heroism, erected a monument over his remains. Napoleon hurried off to France on finding war declared against him by Austria; and in an incredibly short period gained a victory over the archduke Charles at Eckmühl, and entered Vienna. So far successful returned to the Tyrol, where the brave mountaineers had risen under Hofmeister to shake off the Bavarian yoke; and rebellion being suppressed, he defeated the archduke again at Wagram, took 20 000 prisoners, and all his artillery. Meanwhile in the peninsula, Sir Art

Wellesley had returned to take his command, and defeated Victor at Talavera, for which he was created lord Wellington. The Austrians being again compelled to sue for an armistice, the duke of Brunswick-Oels escaped by a most masterly retreat to England; and Schill, who had heroically tried to rouse the Prussians against the French, had perished at Stralsund. As the pope (Pius VII.) would not agree to oppose the English, Napoleon declared the papal power at an end, and conveyed his holiness a prisoner to Fontainebleau.

In April, 1810, the emperor divorced his queen Josephine, to marry Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria, who in the next year gave birth to a son, styled king of Rome: he then removed his brother Louis from the throne of Holland, and added that country to France. Lord Wellington in 1812 made great progress in the work of driving the French out of Spain, defeating them at Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and Salamanca; and in May of that year, Napoleon was obliged wholly to turn his attention from the peninsula. Hurrying to Dresden, accompanied by the empress, he summoned the emperor of Austria, and the kings of Prussia, Naples, Wurtemberg, and Westphalia, to meet him, and declared war against Russia. He instantly commenced a march upon Moscow; but found the enemy every where retreating before him, after burning each city and town through which he had to pass. At Smolensko and Borodino, the Russian general attacked him, occasioned him great loss, and then retreated. At length, September 14, he reached, with his immense force, a hill overlooking Moscow, when he speedily noticed that no smoke issued from the chimneys of the houses; and on entering the place, it was found deserted by all but the very lowest and most wretched of its vast population. In the pillage which succeeded, there were few soldiers who did not clothe themselves in the silks and rich furs of

the evacuated warehouses; but what was Napoleon's perplexity on being roused from his bed during the night after his arrival, to witness the conflagration of the city. Moscow was at every point in flames; and it was now clear that Rostophchin, the governor, had, before quitting, undermined the place. 'These are indeed Scythians!' exclaimed Napoleon, as he removed his head-quarters to Petrowsky, a league distant: 'this bodes great misfortune!' Although he kept up the appearance of cheerfulness in presence of the army, and even licensed 'The Theatre Français at Moscow,' he secretly brooded over his inevitable downfall. He hastily tried negotiations with the Russian generals in the neighbourhood: but finding all in vain, and winter coming on, he began his retreat, the most disastrous one which had ever fallen to the lot of an army.

The troops being split into detachments, it was agreed that each party should make the best of its way towards Prussia, Napoleon heading 6000 chosen horse. All the parties found themselves harassed by Cossacks, who killed every straggler; and occasionally an overwhelming force of Russian troops would drive them before them with immense loss. At length Napoleon forced a passage across the Dnieper; and as he hurried onwards, was assailed with reports of the overthrow of one general, the surrender of another, and the hemming in of a third. He heard that Victor, in crossing the Beresina, over a bridge intended solely for waggons and cannon, had lost, from overloading it, many thousand men in an instant, with the best part of his artillery. 'The scream that rose at the moment of the fall of the bridge,' says an eyewitness, 'did not leave my ears for weeks: it was heard clear and loud over the hurrahs of the pursuing Cossacks, and all the roar of Russian artillery; and when the Beresina thawed after that winter's frost, 36,000 bodies were found in its bed!

The cold was now intense; and dis-

cipline could with difficulty be kept up. The enormous train of artillery which Napoleon insisted on bringing away from Moscow, was soon diminished; and the roads were blocked up by the spoils of the city, which were abandoned of necessity, when the means of transport failed. The horses sank and stiffened by hundreds and by thousands; while the starving soldiery slew others of these animals, that they might drink their warm blood, and wrap themselves in their yet reeking skins. The assaults of the Cossacks continued as before. The troops often performed their march by torch-light, with the hope of escaping their merciless pursuers: when they halted, they fell asleep in hundreds, to wake no more: their enemies found them frozen to death around the ashes of their watch-fires: and, on one occasion, a party of poor famished wretches were found engaged in boiling the flesh of their dead comrades. Flocks of wolves followed in the track of the dying army, and even entered France in pursuit of the small portion which eventually escaped destruction. When all these horrors were from time to time told to Napoleon, he would peevishly exclaim, 'Why will you disturb my tranquillity? I desire to know no particulars. Why will you deprive me of my tranquillity?' At length the emperor reached Paris, far in advance of his troops, which, on entering France, were found reduced from 500,000 to less than 50,000! Such is the price at which ambition does not hesitate to purchase even the chance of what the world calls glory!

Such however was the influence of this singular man over the French people, that he was still able to raise by a new conscription 350,000 effective soldiers! Finding Prussia had joined the Russians, and that all were marching towards France, he was soon at the head of his new army in Saxony, and gained, with little advantage, the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen. Though a congress was held at Prague, to bring about a general reconciliation, it terminated without any such result; and,

Austria now joining the enemies of Napoleon, the battles of Dresden, Culm, and last of all Leipsic, displayed to his view that his only security lay in retreat. He offered to cede all his conquests, and to keep only France within the Rhine, but in vain: the allied monarchs would not listen to him; and when the Germans had forced him over their favourite river, the natural boundary of their country, an universal thanksgiving to the god of battles was offered up, amidst cries of 'the Rhine! the Rhine!' Napoleon was now to see all his former allies, and all on whom he had imperiously trampled, in vengeful array against him. Holland recalled its stadtholder; Hanover returned to its English possessor; Brunswick, and the other German states, followed the same example; the Tyrolese were in arms; even Murat, his own creature, offered to join Austria to overwhelm him; the Adriatic was free; and in Spain, lord Wellington was driving out the remnant of the French army, and threatening to advance upon Paris. Disaffection too was discovered in France itself; Bourdeaux and other important cities were known to incline to the restoration of the exiled Bourbons: add to this, the allied Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, were about to cross the Rhine, and approach the capital: in a word, as Napoleon afterwards declared at St. Helena, 'he felt the reins slipping from his hands!' But he by no means yielded to despair. He headed his troops, fought at Brienne, La Rothiere, Soissons, and Laon: and, sure of success, refused to negotiate with his enemies until it was too late. Napoleon was at Troyes when he received the news of the entrance of the allies into Paris; and hurrying on horseback to Fontainebleau, which he reached late at night, he there ordered a carriage, and with Caulaincourt and Berthier, drove towards Paris. Nothing could shake his belief that he was yet in time; until, while changing horses a few miles from the capital, general Belliard came up, at the head of a

column of cavalry, and stated the fact. Leaping from the coach, he began 'Why are you here, Belliard? where are the enemy? where my wife and boy? where is Marmont? where Mortier?' Belliard, walking by his side, told him the events of the day. He strode on towards Paris, crying 'You should have held out longer, you should have raised Paris, go, go; I see every one has lost his senses! This comes of employing fools and cowards.' With such exclamations Napoleon hurried on, dragging Belliard with him, until they were met by the first of the retreating infantry. 'In proceeding to Paris,' said their leader, 'you rush on death or captivity.' At these words Buonaparte sank at once into perfect composure, gave orders that the troops, as they arrived, should draw up behind the Esone, despatched Caulaincourt to Paris to say he would accept whatever terms the allied sovereigns might offer, and turned again towards Fontainebleau. The reply from Paris was that he must abdicate, before any terms could be offered: so that, after in vain trying to induce his marshals to lead his troops, under his own head command, upon Paris, he renounced the crown of France in a solemn deed. The emperor Alexander, and king of Prussia, who were at M. Talleyrand's hotel in the capital, agreed instantly that Napoleon should keep his title of emperor, and have full sovereignty over the little island of Elba, with a suitable allowance of money; that the empress should have the duchy of Parma; and that all the Buonaparte family should receive pensions.

On the 20th of April, 1814, the fallen emperor desired the relics of his imperial guard might be drawn up in the courtyard of the castle of Fontainebleau. He advanced to them on horseback; and tears dropped from his eyes as he dismounted in the midst. 'All Europe,' said he, 'has armed against me; do not lament my fate: be faithful to the new sovereign whom your country has chosen. I

will record with my pen the deeds we have done together. I cannot embrace you all,' he continued, taking the commanding officer in his arms, 'but I embrace your general. Bring hither the eagle. Beloved eagle! may the kisses I bestow on you long resound in the hearts of the brave. Farewel, my children, farewell my brave companions—surround me once more,—farewel!' Amidst the silent but profound grief of the party, he hurried into the carriage which was waiting for him, and commenced his journey to the coast. At first he was much cheered, but in the distant provinces he was hooted, and threatened with personal violence; so that he often rode in the disguise of a courier on horseback, till he reached Frejus, where he embarked in the English frigate *Undaunted*, in preference to a French vessel. On arriving at Elba, he soon saw, from the top of a hill, that his place of dominion was a small one; and fixed as he thus was, within view of the shore that had so long acknowledged his sway, we can little wonder at his clandestine return. On the 1st of March, 1815, having narrowly escaped a French ship of war, he landed at Cannes,—the day of the *violets*, the secret symbol of his return,—and with 800 soldiers began his march towards Paris. As he proceeded, he was joined by the labouring population, and successively by each troop of soldiers sent to crush his progress: even marshal Ney, who had sworn fidelity to Louis XVIII., and promised 'to bring Buonaparte to his majesty's feet in a cage, like a wild beast, in the course of a week,' joined his former master at Auxerre. On the 19th, Napoleon slept once more in the chateau of Fontainebleau; and on the morning of the 20th he advanced through the forest towards Paris, in full knowledge that marshal Macdonald was marching with a large force against him.

It was about noon when the marshal's troops, listening with delight to the loyal strain of 'Vive Henri Quatre,' perceived suddenly an open carriage

among the trees, coming at full speed towards them, followed by a handful of Poles with their lances reversed. The little flat cocked-hat, the gray surtout, the person of Napoleon, was recognised. In an instant the men burst from their ranks, surrounded him with cries of 'Vive l'Empereur,' and trampled their white cockades in the dust. On that same day Napoleon entered Paris, and found in the apartments of the Tuileries, which the king had just vacated, a brilliant assemblage of those who had formerly filled prominent places in his own councils, all desirous to support his cause. The exile was hardly reseated on the throne, when he learned that he must maintain it against the united Austrians, Russians, Prussians, and English; and his preparations to meet this gigantic confederacy were most energetic. By May, 1815, he had raised 370,000 men in arms, including 40,000 chosen veterans, in the most splendid state of equipment and discipline, a large and brilliant force of cavalry, and a train of artillery of proportionable extent and excellence; and having, in an assembly called the Champ-de-Mai, made all his adherents swear to a new constitution, he set off for the Netherlands, exclaiming as he entered his carriage, 'I go to measure myself against Wellington!' Blucher's army of Prussians, 100,000 in number, communicated on the right with the left of the Anglo-Belgian army of the Duke of Wellington, which consisted of 35,000 English, 5000 Brunswickers, and a motley host of Belgians and others, in all 75,000. On the 16th, at Quatre Bras, Amand, and Ligny, various contests took place, and the loss was great on both sides: the gallant duke of Brunswick fell, and Blucher was more than once in imminent danger, and obliged at length to retreat; a course which the duke of Wellington followed, in order to get his position on the plain of Waterloo, which he had previously hoped might be the spot of conflict. All his arrangements having been effected early in the evening of the 17th,

though the day had been extremely wet, the duke rode across the country to inform Blucher personally of his plan; when the veteran Prussian agreed, after leaving a small force to keep Grouchy at bay, to march himself with the rest of his men on the morrow upon Waterloo. The duke immediately returned to his post, the rain still falling in torrents.

At length the 18th of June arrived; and Napoleon, who had feared the English would retreat till the Russians should come up, was delighted, on reaching the eminence of La Belle Alliance, to behold the duke's army drawn out upon the opposite side, waiting his attack. 'At last, then,' he exclaimed, 'I have these English in my grasp!' It was about noon, when the rain had abated, though it continued gusty and stormy, that Jerome Buonaparte began the battle. The English formed in squares, and defied all their efforts. The next attempt was made on the British centre, by cuirassiers and infantry: the English heavy cavalry made them retreat, and in pursuing them the gallant Picton was killed. The third assault was against the British right, where the infantry, in a double line of squares, placed chequerwise, with thirty field pieces before them, were drawn up. The French cuirassiers drove the artillerymen from their guns, and then rode fiercely to within ten yards of the squares behind. In an instant a most deadly musket fire began from the latter, and this magnificent force was almost annihilated. The French cannonade now opened so furiously along their line, that the duke made the English lie flat on the ground for a space, to diminish its effects. He had lost 10,000, and Buonaparte 15,000 men.

It was now six in the evening, and Napoleon saw that a decisive blow must be given before the Prussians should arrive. He therefore brought up his guard, the flower of his army, and urging them to charge boldly under Ney, retired to the heights of La Belle Alliance with a spy-glass. The duke

of Wellington hereupon dismounted, and placed himself at the head of his line. Nothing could withstand the assault of the British, for the first moment acting on the offensive. The old guard gave way. Napoleon from his station observed what was doing, turned suddenly pale, and exclaiming 'All is lost!' galloped off to Charle-roi. At the critical moment of the shaking of the old guard by this attack in front, Blücher was seen emerging with his columns from the neighbouring woods : whereupon the fatal cry of, 'Sauve qui peut!' ran through the French army, and all was over. Blücher agreed to pursue the fugitives, while the duke rested his men ; and it was soon ascertained that this glorious victory had left the latter loser 15,000 slain. The duke and one other officer alone came off without injury. Buonaparte's loss was 45,000. On the night of the 20th, Napoleon arrived alone in Paris ; on the 22d he signed another act of abdication, in favour of his son ; and he was then requested by the provisional government of Fouché, Carnot, and three more, to retire to Malmaison. Fouché, having recommended him to escape to America, informed the English government of what he had advised ; at Rochefort consequently, when he hoped that the Bellerophon, under captain Maitland, would receive him as a freeman, he was told he must be at the disposal of the English government. He appealed from on board that vessel to the Prince Regent of England, but it was decided he should be exiled to St. Helena ; and the Northumberland, commanded by admiral Sir George Cockburn, conveyed him thither forthwith, accompanied by four of his friends and their families, Bertrand, Montholon, Las-casas, and Gourgand, a surgeon, and twelve domestics. He was, on his arrival, lodged first at a cottage called The Briars, until his home was ready ; and to the latter, called Longwood, he removed December 1815.

The remainder of this extraordinary man's life was passed in conversations

with his officers on past events, plans, not to say plots, for the future, in receiving the visits of persons of respectability who touched at the island, and in squabbles with the governor Sir Hudson Lowe, who had the unenviable task of being his gaoler. It was in 1820 that, from not taking regular exercise out of doors, his health began visibly to decline : he would not conform to the governor's order to be *watched*, nor would he show himself, as required, once in the twenty-four hours to one of his guards, and it was soon evident that a formidable disease was attacking his stomach. He even refused to be relieved by medicines : to his physician he said, 'Doctor, no physicking ; we are a machine made to live ; do not counteract the living principle—let it alone—leave it the liberty of self-defence—it will do better than your drugs.' With his health, his mind sank also. Some fishes in a pond in the garden at Longwood had attracted his notice : they sickened and died. 'Every thing I love,' said Napoleon, 'every thing that belongs to me is stricken. Heaven and mankind unite to afflict me.' Fits of long silence and of profound melancholy were now frequent. 'In those days,' he once said aloud in a reverie, 'in those days I was Napoleon. Now I am nothing. My strength, my faculties, forsake me—I no longer live.' Another physician was called in (April 1821) but he also was heard in vain : 'Quod scriptum, scriptum,' once more answered he, 'our hour is marked, and no one can claim a moment of life beyond what fate has predestined.' While drawing up his will, he said, 'he knew he had a schirrus of the pylorus—the physicians of Montpelier prophesied it would be hereditary in our family—my father died of it!' He then gave directions to the priest, Vignali, as to his body lying in state by torchlight, and observed, 'I am neither an atheist nor a rationalist ; I believe in God, and am of the religion of my father. I was born a catholic, and will fulfil all the duties of that church, and receive the

assistance which she administers.' The last sacraments were therefore administered to him, after which he fell into a stupor. On the 4th of May the island was swept by a tremendous storm, which tore up all the trees about Longwood. The 5th was another day of tempests: and about six in the evening of that day Napoleon, having pronounced the words 'tête d'armée!' passed for ever from the dreams of battle. On dissection, it was found that a cancerous ulcer occupied nearly the whole stomach.

Napoleon was buried on the 8th, after lying in state, in a grave prepared among some weeping willows, beside a fountain, where his favourite evening seat had been. The pall spread over his coffin, was the military cloak he wore at Marengo: his household, the governor, the admiral, and all the civil and military authorities, attended him to the tomb; and the road not being passable for carriages, a party of English grenadiers bore the body. The burial service was read by Vignali; and while the rite was performing, the admiral's ship fired minute guns, and three volleys were given from fifteen cannon as the coffin descended into the grave.

William Pitt, son of the earl of Chatham, was made, at twenty-two, chancellor of the exchequer, and at twenty-four (1783) prime minister. Under his auspices the American war was concluded, Indian affairs regulated, and the system adopted of reducing the national debt by a sinking fund. When the king was seized with his first illness, Mr. Pitt boldly resisted the prince of Wales's right to assume the government; which Mr. Fox, with more zeal than constitutional knowledge, had hastily asserted. It was, however, during the critical period of the war with revolutionary France that the splendid abilities of Mr. Pitt shone forth: he became the arbiter of nations: in every corner of the habitable globe did his councils either positively direct or considerably influence the measures of the throne: and his history is therefore the history of all

the civilized kingdoms of the world. But to return to his home operations. The union with Ireland was his work; he gave way to Mr. Addington's administration, that the effects of a peace with France might be tried by the treaty of Amiens; and he then again took the helm, to carry on his designs upon the colossal influence of Buonaparte. But just as public affairs had assumed a most threatening aspect, his constitution, weakened by an hereditary gout and his amazing exertions, suddenly gave way. The intelligence of Napoleon's success at Austerlitz, like the last overwhelming wave of the defenceless wreck, extinguished for ever the energies of him whose ambition would have raised his country high above all others, and whose sole earthly object was her glory. He expired at his house at Putney, January the 23rd, 1806, aged forty-seven, and the last words which quivered on the lips of the dying patriot were, 'Oh! my country!' That Mr. Pitt was eminently fitted for his elevated station is abundantly evident; he was steady to his principles, and maintained the opinion on which he acted, formed as it was after mature deliberation, against all obstacles, to the end; his plans were invariably magnanimous, extensive, noble. In devising the good of England, he went farther than the present moment, and beyond the consideration of her exclusive welfare; he legislated for ages to come, and laboured to bring (under God) ultimate prosperity, not only upon his own native land, but upon Europe, and the world.

Charles James Fox, son of lord Holland, was chosen member for Midhurst before he was of age. During the American war, he was the regular antagonist of the ministry; but on the removal of lord North, he was made secretary of state. Fox hailed the French revolution as the harbinger of freedom to the world, and accordingly gave it his unqualified support; but after the death of his rival, Mr. Pitt, when made secretary for foreign affairs, he acknowledged his disappointment

as to that issue. He died in the same year with Mr. Pitt, aged fifty-seven, 1806. Highly gifted as an orator and a statesman, Mr. Fox was in private life the convivial friend, and the man of integrity and honour. He had been dissipated in youth, and this character necessarily tinged his maturer years; but his faults, as Burke observes, were not formed to extinguish the fire of great virtues.

Edmund Burke, son of an attorney in Ireland, entered at the Middle Temple, London. He some time lived by his pen; and his 'Essay on the Sublime,' introduced him at once to the circle of the learned. Dodsley, at his suggestion, commenced his *Annual Register*, 1758, which is to this day continued by Messrs. Rivington. In the Rockingham administration he held office; but, as a member of the commons, he constantly attacked Mr. Pitt, especially on the regency question, and was at first a warm admirer of the French revolution. Upon the destruction of the French monarchy, however, he altered his tone, published his 'Reflections' on the event, separated from his party, and zealously supported Mr. Pitt. His accusation of Mr. Hastings is the only blot in his political character: as a private man, he was affable, benevolent, exemplary in all duties religious and moral, and dignified in demeanour. As an author, Burke will ever hold rank among the most accurate critics, for his elegant and philosophical work 'On the Sublime and Beautiful.' He died 1797, aged sixty-seven.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, son of Thomas Sheridan, a lecturer on elocution, entered as a student of law at the Middle Temple. But he chose to write for the stage; and his *Rivals*, *Duenna*, and *School for Scandal*, gained him high reputation. Having bought, in conjunction with two others, Garrick's share in the patent of management of Drury-lane theatre, the property qualified him for a seat in parliament; and entering the lists against lord North, his oratory was so powerful, that when that lord resigned, he was

made under-war-secretary. He held office in the coalition; and upon its dissolution, became, and continued to the last, the violent opponent of Mr. Pitt. In the impeachment of Hastings he sided with Burke; and his eloquence on that occasion has been considered one of the most able of oratorical efforts. Notwithstanding his marriage with a woman of fortune, a post of 12,000*l.* a year from the crown, and his share at Drury-lane, Sheridan, being wholly improvident, became at length the tenant of a gaol. He died 1815, aged sixty-five.

As a dramatic author, Sheridan is at the head of that department of comedy which exhibits the vices of fashionable society in its every-day commerce, its deceptions, intrigues, slanders, and detractions; and the 'School for Scandal' is his masterpiece.

As an orator, Sheridan was extraordinary for variety and force; and in the anathemas of vengeance, or in bursts of anger, scarcely any English speaker ever equalled him. Pitt's eloquence was more accurate, copious, and better arranged: it was uniformly impressive, while his power in sarcasm was equal to Sheridan's force in angry denunciation. Fox was superior in argumentative force: his reasoning faculties were always kept in full action during his speeches; and so closely did he conflict in this way, that he pursued his consequent, link by link, to the very end of the chain of deductions. As a mere speaker, he was inferior to Pitt, Burke, and Sheridan. Burke was wholly different from the three mentioned. He often reasoned ill, flew desultorily from one subject to another, and when he wished to accuse or condemn, lost both temper and manners; but his diction was so rich and varied, his vivacity and rapidity so extraordinary, and his genius so marked, that his hearers thought themselves convinced, when they were only dazzled. In a word, while Sheridan, by passionate declamation, could rouse the slumbering spirit of his auditors, Burke could urge them forward to scenes of

daring action: and while Fox could convince his hearers by irresistible appeals to their reasoning faculties, Pitt, by his sober, dignified and sensible exhortations, could lead them on to prudent resolves, and thence to generous and noble, but judicious deeds. Those who should desire the best specimens which books can afford of senatorial eloquence, would find it worth their while to peruse the speeches of Pitt as given by Mr. Hathaway.

Cardinal York, the last of the Stuarts, was brother of the young pretender, prince Charles Edward. Both were the sons of prince James, the first pretender, by Maria, daughter of prince Sobieski. The old pretender died at Rome, 1765; and the young one in 1788. Henry was born at Rome, and elected in due time cardinal of York: he was generally honoured with the empty title of Henry IX: and adopted the liveries and arms of the English monarchs. King George III. behaved to him with great munificence, during the troubles in Italy after the French revolution; and the cardinal is said to have been sensibly affected by his generous conduct. He died, aged eighty-two, 1807. The Theban house of Laius was amongst the most unfortunate of ancient regal families; but that of Stuart was, in modern annals, assuredly beyond comparison unhappy. The first Stuart was Robert II.; and his son, Robert III., died of grief for the captivity of his son by our Henry IV. That son, James I., after spending his youth in imprisonment, was slain by his own people. James II. was killed accidentally by the plug of a cannon; James III. fell in a civil commotion; and James IV. at the battle of Flodden; James V. died of a broken heart, and his daughter Mary, and her grandson Charles I., perished on the scaffold; Charles II. passed his youth in exile, and James II. was driven from his kingdom to die in a foreign land!

Frederick Lord North, prime minister from 1770 to 1782, during a period of especial difficulty and danger,

was the great promoter of the war by which England lost her American colonies; and when it was supposed he would be impeached for his conduct in that affair, a coalition took place, to the astonishment of the people, between the Tories and Whigs, which, however, lasted but a few months, and closed the premier's political career. Lord North (who died, aged sixty, 1792, after succeeding to the earldom of Guilford) was, in private life, a fastidious and urbane man; and even at the house, when Colonel Barré, who like himself was afflicted with blindness, had warmly assailed him, he calmly observed to the speaker, that 'notwithstanding the colonel's hostility, he was sure there were no two persons in the world, who would be so glad to see each other frequently, as they.'

Necker, the French financier, who, finding every other measure to save his country unsuccessful, recommended the assembling of the states-general to Louis XVI.; a course which brought on the revolution, and his own banishment to Switzerland. His accomplished daughter, Madame de Staël, and his wife, have been distinguished as writers on political economy, &c.

Pope Ganganeli (Clement XIV.) His election was effected by the Bourbons 1764, with the hope that he would suppress the Jesuits; but on being called on to do so, he frankly replied, 'that as the father of the faithful, and the protector of religious societies, he could not destroy a celebrated order, without reasons which would justify him before God, and in the eyes of posterity.' He was, however, at length forced to comply, 1773; and the act was indisputably fatal to papal influence. Ganganeli was simple in manners, highly disinterested, maintained the dignity of his station, and was least of all popes given to nepotism. He received all strangers, whether Catholics or not, at his court, delighted in easy conversation, and was studious at all times to promote the welfare of his people.

Hyder-Aly, son of a petty chief of

the Mysore, in Hindustan, dethroned Cinoas, who held the throne of Seringapatam as a vassal of the Great Mongul, and made himself sovereign, thus founding the Mahometan kingdom of the Mysore, 1760. He so greatly extended his dominions 1766, that the Mahrattas and English endeavoured to destroy his power, the latter under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder Aly's death, however, 1782, produced a more powerful opponent in the person of his son *Tippoo Saib*, assisted as he was by the French; but when the revolution in France had deprived him of his European allies, lord Cornwallis compelled him to sue for peace, which was granted on ceding part of his territories, and giving up his two sons to the English as hostages. Of a fierce and laughty disposition, Tippoo felt impatient at the humiliations he had endured; and in 1799 a fresh war commenced, which ended in the taking of his capital, Seringapatam, by General Harris, in the defence of which Tippoo lost his life. An immense booty fell into the hands of the English; including the sultan's library, which was highly valuable for the number of Sanscrit, Persian, and other eastern works.

William Murray, Earl of Mansfield, son of lord Stormont, gradually made his way to eminence in the law. He was chief justice of the king's bench 1756, and as chancellor of the exchequer for a short time, effected a coalition of parties, which led to lord Chatham's administration. In the riots of 1780 the mob burned down his town house, for having voted in favour of the catholics; but he nobly refused all compensation by the state for his serious loss. He was created an earl for his important services; and having resigned his high office, to enjoy the retirement of the country, he died five years afterwards, aged eighty-eight, 1793. Lord Mansfield's oratory was of the persuasive species; and, combining great argumentative power with a studied elegance of diction, there were few cultivated minds which could

bear him unimpressed. But it is as a judge that his name will go down to posterity: and it is no slight evidence of his integrity and wisdom, that his decisions have seldom been reversed.

Pascal Paoli, governor of Corsica during its struggle to throw off the Genoese yoke. He came to England, 1769, on the unsuccessful termination of the contest, Corsica being made over to France by the Genoese; but he again for a time acted as its lieutenant under Louis XVI., at whose death he returned to England. Here the general died, 1807. See page 424. Corsica has ever since belonged to France.

John Philpot Curran, the most popular of Irish advocates, was of humble origin. Obtaining a silk gown, and a seat in the Irish parliament, he became famous for his defence of such as were accused of political offences, during the distracted state of Ireland from 1790 to 1800. He resigned the mastership of the rolls, and died in England, 1817, aged sixty-seven. Curran's wit, eloquence, pathos, and drollery were irresistible; and his splendid and daring style of oratory formed a striking contrast with his personal appearance, which was undignified in the extreme.

Sir Samuel Romilly, solicitor-general under Mr. Fox, distinguished himself by his labours in parliament to soften the English criminal code, which led to a condensation of the acts respecting crime, and some beneficial reforms. He put a period to his valuable life, during a nervous illness, 1818.

Thomas Paine, who left stay-making for politics, and did a great deal of mischief in the midst of the excitement produced by the French revolution, by his works called 'The Rights of Man,' and 'The Age of Reason.' The French chose him a member of their convention; but as he voted against the king's death, he was imprisoned, and by the death of Robespierre alone escaped the guillotine. Paine was a highly immoral

and irreligious man, and died deservedly despised in America, 1809.

Ney, one of Napoleon's marshals, commanded the French forces in their retreat before lord Wellington in the peninsula; and having made one in the unfortunate expedition to Moscow, his conduct in the terrible battle of Mojaïsk, procured him the rank of prince of Moskwa. Napoleon was in the habit of calling him 'bravest of the brave!' He was however one of the first of his generals, that, at the period of his fall in 1814, offered submission to the Bourbons, by which he preserved his titles and his pensions; but when Napoleon landed from Elba (though he had promised Louis XVIII. to bring the disturber of Europe to him *in an iron cage*) he again became one of his most active partisans. At the battle of Waterloo he took the chief command, and led on the troops against the duke of Wellington during the last charge of the British. After that conflict, Ney was tried by the Bourbons for treason, and shot, December 6, 1815.

William Wilberforce, a benevolent member of parliament, whose whole life may be read in the progress of the abolition of the slave-trade, which his philanthropic labours effected in 1807, as far as legal enactment could go. So greatly did he endear himself on that account to his constituents, the freeholders of Yorkshire, that, in the great contest of 1807, they subscribed in a few days the vast sum of 600,000*l.* to pay his election expenses, though only a moiety of that amount was required. This excellent man died 1833, aged 73.

John Elwes the celebrated miser. As, in a philosophical point of view, a sketch of every variety of character should be interesting to the youthful reader, so may its delineation be beneficial in a moral one. Mr. Elwes succeeded to the property of Sir Harvey Elwes, his uncle, who had amassed a large fortune by dint of economy. Sir Harvey had come to an estate of value, but so encumbered with mortgages, that 100*l.* per year was as much as he

could derive from it. Entering therefore the family seat at Stoke in Suffolk, he declared he would never quit it until he had cleared its debts; and he commenced a course of life, which his nephew so effectually imitated. Counting his money was his chief amusement: partridge-setting his next: and he and his one man and two maids lived upon partridges. Amongst the few acquaintances he had, were the members of a club held at Stoke, which counted two baronets beside himself, Sir Cordwell Firebrass, and Sir John Barnardiston. The reckoning to these congenial souls was always an object of investigation; and as they were one day settling so difficult a point, a member called out to a friend, 'I beseech you step up stairs, and assist the poor!—here are three baronets, worth a million of money, quarrelling about a farthing!' When he died, he lay in state, such as it was: on which occasion some of the tenants observed, with more humour than decency, 'that it was well, Sir Harvey could not see it!'

To this uncle's property (about 150,000*l.*) Mr. Elwes succeeded, when above forty years of age; and his own fortune was not much inferior. He had been educated at Westminster, and in early life had been in dissipated, but polite society. His manners were always mild and unassuming, and his temper excellent. In proof of the latter, when in a shooting excursion, at seventy-three, to try the virtues of a pointer, one of the party lodged two pellets in his cheek: the blood appeared, and the shot certainly gave him pain; but when the gentleman came to make his apology, and profess his sorrow, 'My dear sir,' said Mr. Elwes, 'I give you joy on your improvement, I knew you would hit something by and by.' After sitting up a whole night at play, for thousands, with the most fashionable men of the time, in splendid apartments, he would walk out about four in the morning, not towards home but into Smithfield, to meet his own cattle.

which were coming to market from his farm in Essex; and there would he stand in the cold or rain, bartering with a carcass-butcher for a shilling! Sometimes he would walk on in the mire to meet them; and, more than once, has gone on foot the whole way to his farm, seventeen miles from London. To see Mr. Elwes setting out on a journey, was a matter truly curious. He never travelled but on horseback, and never stopped at an inn. His first care was to put two or three eggs boiled hard into his great-coat pocket; baggage he never took; then, mounting one of his hunters, his next object was to get into that road where the turnpikes were fewest. Stopping under any hedge where grass and water were to be found, he would dismount, and refresh himself and horse. Mr. Elwes took up his residence at Stoke, on coming to Sir Harvey's fortune. Bad as was the house he found here, he left one still worse at Marcham, of which the late colonel Timms, his nephew, used to mention the following proof: A few days after he went thither, a great quantity of rain fell in the night, and the colonel had not been long in bed before he found himself wet through. Thinking to escape the evil, he moved the bed; but he had not lain long, before he found the thing repeated. At length, after pushing the bed into a corner, where the ceiling was better secured, he contrived to sleep until morning. When he met his uncle at breakfast, he told him what had happened. 'Ay, ay!' said the old gentleman seriously, 'I don't mind it myself; but to those who do, that's a nice corner in the rain!'

The keeping of fox-hounds was the only instance in the life of Mr. Elwes of his sacrifice of money to pleasure. But even here every thing was done in the most frugal manner. His huntsman's place was no sinecure. This famous lackey might have fixed an epoch in the history of servants; for in a morning, getting up at four, he milked the cows, tended the dogs, pre-

pared breakfast for his master, and then slipping on a green coat, hurried into the stable. After the fatigues of hunting, he rubbed down two or three horses, then laid the cloth and waited at dinner: hurrying again into the stable, he had to feed the horses, diversified with an interlude of the cows again to milk, the dogs to tend, and eight horses to litter down for the night. This man lived in Mr. Elwes's service many years, though his master used often to call him 'an idle dog.' An apothecary's bill was an object of the greatest aversion to Mr. Elwes; and when he had received a very dangerous kick from his horse, nothing could persuade him to have medical aid. He rode the chase through, with his leg cut to the bone; and it was only some days afterwards, when it was feared amputation would be necessary, that he consented to go up to London, and (dismal day!) part with some money for advice. He sometimes made excursions to Newmarket, but never engaged on the turf. A kindness, however, which he performed there, should not pass without notice. Lord Abington, who was slightly known to Mr. Elwes, in Berkshire, had made a match for 7000*l.* which it was supposed he would be obliged to forfeit, from an inability to produce the sum, though the odds were greatly in his favour. Unasked, unsolicited, Mr. Elwes made him an offer of the money, which he accepted, and won his engagement. On the day when this match was to be run, a clergyman had agreed to accompany Mr. Elwes to see the fate of it. They were to go on horseback, and were to set out at seven in the morning. Imagining they were to breakfast at Newmarket, the divine took no refreshment, and away they went. They reached Newmarket about eleven, and Mr. Elwes began to busy himself in inquiries and conversation till twelve, when the match was decided in favour of lord Abington. Mr. Elwes's companion then thought they should move off to the town to take some breakfast; but the old gentlemen still continued

riding about till three, and then four o'clock arrived. The clergyman now grew so impatient, that he mentioned something of the keen air of New-market heath, and the comforts of a good dinner. 'Very true,' said Mr. Elwes, 'very true, so, here, do as I do!' offering him at the same time from his great-coat pocket a piece of an old crushed pancake, which he said he had brought from his house at Marcham, two months before, 'but that it was as good as new.' The sequel of the story is, that they did not reach home till nine in the evening, and that Mr. Elwes, having hazarded 7000*l.* in the morning, went happily to bed with the reflection that he had saved *three shillings!*

As a contrast to this risk of property, which may be called the retributive disease of misers, it is amusing to reflect upon the following: One day Mr. Elwes had put his eldest son upon a ladder, to get some grapes for the table; and leaving him, the boy fell down, and hurt his side. The youth instantly ran to consult the village barber; and, telling his father, on his return, that he had been bled, 'Bled?' said the old gentleman; 'but, what did you give?' 'A shilling,' answered the boy. 'Psha!' returned the father, 'you are a blockhead, never part with your *blood!*' Notwithstanding this corroding anxiety about pence, vast sums of money were from time to time obtained from Mr. Elwes by designing persons; no less than 150,000*l.* are said to have gone from him by various stratagems of apparently honourable persons. A small wine-merchant, for instance, begged his acceptance of some very *fine wine*, and in a short time obtained the loan of 700*l.* Mr. Elwes used to say, 'It was indeed very fine wine, for it cost me 20*l.* a bottle.' This singular man would do much to serve those who did not wish his money. Two ancient maiden ladies in his neighbourhood had incurred the displeasure of the spiritual court, and were threatened with excommunication. The full import of the word they did not understand;

but they had heard something about doing penance, and to stand in a white sheet in the church was instantly what they dreaded. As the sentence was to be carried into effect next day, away they hurried to Mr. Elwes, to know how it might be prevented. No time was to be lost. The miser did that which few would have done: he had his horse saddled; and putting a couple of hard eggs into his pocket, set out for London from Marcham, a distance of sixty miles, that evening, reaching it early enough next morning to notify the submission of the culprits.

From his father, Mr. Elwes inherited some property about the Haymarket, London; and to this he added, by engagements with the builders, Messrs. Adam. Of great part of Mary-le-bone he thus became the founder; and Portland-place, and Portman-square, rose entirely out of his pocket. It was his custom when in London, to occupy any of his vacant houses: a couple of beds, a couple of chairs, a table, and an old woman, comprised all his furniture; and he moved them about at a minute's warning.

Mr. Elwes having taken up his abode in this manner, colonel Timms on some occasion much wished to see him, and inquired for him at all his usual places of resort. But no tidings were to be heard of a *gentleman* called Mr. Elwes; though a postboy recollected having seen a *poor old man* opening the door of a stable belonging to a large house, and locking it after him. To this stable the colonel went, and as he could make no one hear, the neighbours aided him in forcing the door of the house; and in a chamber, upon an old pallet-bed, he found stretched out, seemingly in death, the figure of old Mr. Elwes. He was insensible; but on some cordials being administered, he revived and said, 'he had, he believed, been ill for two or three days; and that there was an old woman in the house, but for some reason or other she had not been near

him.' On searching for that faithful companion of all his movements, she was found dead upon the floor in the garret; and had so been, to all appearance, two days. Thus died the servant: and thus would have died, but for this providential discovery, the master! His mother, Mrs. Meggot, who possessed 100,000*l.* starved herself to death: and her son, who certainly was then worth half a million, had nearly died in his own house from absolute want!

Mr. Elwes had resided thirteen years in Suffolk, when lord Craven nominated him for the county of Berkshire; and to this Mr. Elwes consented, on the special agreement that he was to be brought into parliament for nothing. All he did was dining at the ordinary at Abingdon; and he thus obtained his seat for the moderate sum of *eighteen pence*! He served in three successive parliaments for the same county, and was always noted for his independent mode of voting; but the honour attached to senatorial rank, made no alteration in his dress: on the contrary, it seemed at this time to have attained additional meanness, and nearly to have reached that happy climax of poverty, which more than once drew on him the compassion of passers by. It is enough, while on this point, to state, that he long wore a wig which he had picked up from a rut, and which was probably the cast-off offering of some beggar. It was in 1788, at the age of seventy-six, that Mr. Elwes began first to feel some bodily infirmities. He had an attack of the gout; and, with his accustomed antipathy to medical bills, set about its cure by walking incessantly. While engaged in this painful exercise, he frequently lost himself in the streets of London, the names of which he no longer remembered, and was as frequently brought home by some errand-boy or stranger, of whom he had inquired his way. On these occasions, he would bow and thank them at the door with great civility, but never gave them more substantial reward. Soon

after this, while at Marcham, it was found that he could not rest at night; and he was often heard at midnight, as if struggling with some one in his chamber, crying, 'I will keep my money, I will; nobody shall rob me of my property!' On any one going into his room, he would hurry into bed, and seem unconscious of what had happened. At other times he would walk to the spot where he had hidden five guineas, to see if they were safe. One night he missed his treasure. Mr. Partis, a friend, happened to be sleeping in the house, and was awakened about two in the morning by the noise of naked feet in his bed-chamber. Somewhat alarmed at the circumstance, he asked, 'Who is there?' on which a person coming up towards the bed, said with great civility, 'Sir, my name is Elwes; I have been unfortunate enough to be robbed in this house of all the money I have in the world; of five guineas and a half, and half-a-crown!' This mighty sum was found a few days after, behind a window-shutter. In the autumn of 1789 Mr. Elwes's memory left him entirely; and for six weeks previously to his death in November, he would go to rest in his clothes, sometimes even with his hat on his head, and his stick in his hand, as if fearful that they, as well as his money, should be taken from him.

That the passion of hoarding, like all other passions carried to excess, produces insanity, as respects one class of mental associations, is clearly demonstrable. Mr. Elwes, throughout life, in common with other misers, denied himself its comforts: he would walk through the heaviest rain, rather than spend a shilling for a coach; sit in wet clothes, rather than go to the cost of a fire to dry them; eat his provisions in the last stage of putrefaction, sooner than have a fresh joint from the butcher's; and wear the cast-off apparel of the very beggar, rather than incur the risk of a tailor's bill. It would seem, therefore, a dispensation of Providence, that he who,

[ORY.]

GEORGE III. 1760-1800

On searching for that faithful companion of all his movements, she found dead upon the floor in the room; and had so been, to all appearance, two days. Thus died the patient; and thus would have died, or this providential discovery, the mother, Mrs. Meggot, who possessed 100,000*l.* starved her son to death: and her son, who certainly was then worth half a million, early died in his own house from the want!

Elwes had resided thirteen years in Suffolk, when lord Craven sent him for the county of Berkshire and to this Mr. Elwes consented on the special agreement that he should be brought into parliament. All he did was dining at Abingdon; and he retained his seat for the moderate sum of *eighteen pence*! He served in successive parliaments for the county, and was always noted for an independent mode of voting; honour attached to senatorial dignity, no alteration in his dress: contrary, it seemed at this time, to have reached that happy state of poverty, which more than compensated him the compassion of his fellow-men. It is enough, while on the state, that he long wore a coat which he had picked up from a rut, and which was probably the cast-off of some beggar. It was in the year of seventy-six, that he began first to feel some of the effects of his disease. He had an attack of palsy, and with his accustomed out life, in common with the medical bills, set about musing, denied himself all pleasures, and was talking incessantly. While he would walk through the streets, his eyes were so painful, he would rather spend a shilling to have himself washed in cold water, than sit in wet clothes. He would go to the cost of a fire to have his provisions in the best satisfaction, sooner than have them from the butcher's; and would wear the most costly apparel of the season, rather than incur the risk of catching cold. It would seem, that the interposition of Providence, in the person of Mr. Elwes, was intended to show the world, that the passion of hoarding, carried to excess, produces insanity, in respects to the class of mental associations, is common with the most respectable of men. Mr. Elwes, the day after this, while he was at his chamber, as if struggling with some one in his money, crying, 'I will keep my money, I will; nobody shall rob me of my property!' On any one entering into his room, he would hurry into bed, and seem unconscious of what had happened. At other times he would walk to the spot where he had hidden five guineas, to see if they were safe. One night he missed his treasure. Mr. Partis, a friend, happened to be sleeping in the house, and was awakened about two in the morning by the noise of naked feet in his bed-chamber. Somewhat alarmed at the circumstance, he asked, 'Who is there?' on which a person coming up towards the bed, said with great civility, 'Sir, my name is Elwes; I have been unfortunate enough to be robbed in this house of all the money I have in the world; of five guineas and a half, and half-a-crown! This mighty sum was found a few days after, behind a window-shutter. In the autumn of 1789 Mr. Elwes's memory left him entirely; and for six weeks previously to his death in November, he would go to rest in his clothes, sometimes even with his hat on his head, and his stick in his hand, as if fearful that they, as well as his money, should be taken from him.

That the passion of hoarding, carried to excess, produces insanity, in respects to the class of mental associations, is common with the most respectable of men. Mr. Elwes, the day after this, while he was at his chamber, as if struggling with some one in his money, crying, 'I will keep my money, I will; nobody shall rob me of my property!' On any one entering into his room, he would hurry into bed, and seem unconscious of what had happened. At other times he would walk to the spot where he had hidden five guineas, to see if they were safe. One night he missed his treasure. Mr. Partis, a friend, happened to be sleeping in the house, and was awakened about two in the morning by the noise of naked feet in his bed-chamber. Somewhat alarmed at the circumstance, he asked, 'Who is there?' on which a person coming up towards the bed, said with great civility, 'Sir, my name is Elwes; I have been unfortunate enough to be robbed in this house of all the money I have in the world; of five guineas and a half, and half-a-crown! This mighty sum was found a few days after, behind a window-shutter. In the autumn of 1789 Mr. Elwes's memory left him entirely; and for six weeks previously to his death in November, he would go to rest in his clothes, sometimes even with his hat on his head, and his stick in his hand, as if fearful that they, as well as his money, should be taken from him.

without the natural and legal incentives to the accumulation of wealth, namely, personal need, the desire of making moderate provision for a family, or any such laudable object, still heaps up riches for the mere love of them, should at last be possessed with the notion of suffering that want which alone could authorize his saving; while the same retributive power makes it an easy matter for the hoarder to give away, or at all events risk, thousands, with far greater complacency than he can part with their fraction,—a shilling.

Horatio Nelson, the most illustrious of naval commanders, was son of a Norfolk divine, and was early in life placed on board his uncle's ship, though of very delicate stature and health. 'What,' said captain Suckling, when he heard of his wish to go to sea, 'what has poor Horatio done, that he, above all the rest, should be sent to rough it at sea?' After various voyages in merchant-vessels, he was raised to the rank of post-captain; and he had command of different ships, when our West India settlements were threatened by the French. He was called from America, at the breaking out of the French revolution, to aid in the Mediterranean, and there he assisted at the taking of Toulon, and superintended the landing of the troops at Bastia. Although he lost an eye at the siege of Calvi, his services were wholly overlooked, as he had acted only under the orders of Sir Charles Stuart. For his conduct off Cape St. Vincent, 1797, in which action he forced two large Spanish frigates to strike their flags, he was made rear-admiral of the blue. His next service was an attack on the town of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe, in which he received a shot through the right elbow as he was stepping from the boat, in consequence of which his arm was obliged to be amputated, and he received a pension of 1000*l*.

In April, 1798, admiral Nelson was sent to the Mediterranean, to watch the progress of the armament at

Toulon; and when the French fleet, which conveyed Buonaparte to Egypt, had escaped his vigilance, he soon after discovered it moored in the bay of Aboukir, and by a well-executed manœuvre, obliged it to come to action. He obtained a most signal victory; all the French ships but one being taken or destroyed. During the severity of the contest, Nelson received a wound in the head, and a great effusion of blood occasioned an apprehension that the injury was mortal; the generous commander, however, would only be assisted in his turn by the surgeon, and the joy of the wounded men, and of the whole crew, when he heard that the hurt was superficial, gave him deeper pleasure than did the unexpected assurance that his life was in no danger. The surgeon requested him to remain quiet; but when a cry was heard that the enemy's ship *Orient* (the admiral's) was on fire, he appeared on the quarterdeck, and immediately gave orders that boats should be sent to her relief. It was soon after that the fire, from some accidental cause, broke out. The admiral, brave after being three times wounded, had been, by a fourth shot, severed almost in two. By the prodigious light of this conflagration, the situation of the two fleets could be clearly perceived; and at ten, the ship, while its defenders were firing with great vigour, blew up, with a shock that was felt to the very bottom of every vessel. The tremendous explosion was followed by a stillness not less awful: the firing immediately ceased on both sides; and the first sound which broke the silence, was the dash of shattered masts and yards, falling into the water from the vast height to which they had been forced. Only seventy out of many hundred of the *Orient's* crew were saved, and those by the English boats. Nelson would not call the issue of this memorable conflict of the Nile a victory, but a conquest; and he received for the achievement the title of baron Nelson, and a pension of 2000*l*.

The admiral's next service was the

restoration of the king of the Sicilies, whose subjects had joined the French against him; but in effecting this, he stained his character by sanctioning the trial and hanging of the aged prince Caraccioli, who had been trepanned, in his alarm, to join the French, when at the head of the Sicilian marine. He had been forty years a faithful subject; and Nelson is supposed to have been influenced by lady Hamilton, wife of the English ambassador, his attachment to whom occasioned his separation from lady Nelson on his return to England. Meanwhile the king of Sicily bestowed on his deliverer the estate of Bronte (*thunder*), worth 3000*l.* a year, with a dukedom; and as Mr. Southey, his excellent biographer, observes, the sailors were no less pleased with their commander's appropriate title of *duke of thunder*, than Nelson himself was with the simple offering of the Greeks of Zante. They sent him, out of gratitude for the security which that part of Greece had obtained by his reduction of Sicily, a golden-headed sword, together with a truncheon, set round with all the diamonds the island could furnish, in a single row.

In 1801 lord Nelson was employed on the expedition to Copenhagen, under Sir Hyde Parker, in which he displayed his accustomed gallantry, and effected the destruction of the Danish ships and batteries. On his return home he was created a viscount, and his honours were made hereditary in his family, even in the female line. When hostilities recommenced after the peace of Amiens, he was appointed to command the fleet in the Mediterranean, and for nearly two years was engaged in the blockade of Toulon. In spite of his vigilance, the French fleet got out of port, March 30th, 1805, and being joined by a Spanish squadron from Cadiz, sailed to the West Indies. Thither Nelson pursued them, and tracked them back to Europe; and after passing some weeks in the shelter of Cadiz harbour, the French, commanded by Villeneuve, and the Spaniards by Gravina, ven-

tured forth again, and on the 21st of October came up with the English squadron off Cape Trafalgar. Hereupon an engagement took place, which was followed by a most glorious victory to the British, though at the vast expense of their commander's life. His ship was the *Victory*, and it had been part of his prayer that the British fleet might be distinguished by humanity in the victory which he expected. Setting an example himself, he twice gave orders to cease firing upon the Redoubtable, supposing that she had struck, because her great guns were silent; for, as she carried no flag, there was no means of instantly ascertaining the fact. From this ship, which he had thus twice spared, he received his death. A ball, fired from her mizzen-top, struck the epaulette on his left shoulder, and he fell upon his face. Faint as he was, he observed, as they were carrying him below, that the tiller ropes, which had been shot away, were not replaced, and ordered new ones immediately to be rove: then, that he might not be seen by the crew, covered his face and his stars with his handkerchief. Had he but concealed his badges of honour, England perhaps would not have had cause to receive with sorrow the news of the battle of Trafalgar. It was soon found that his wound was mortal. This, however, was concealed from all except Capt. Hardy, the chaplain, and the medical attendants; and all that could be done was to fan him with paper, and frequently to give him lemonade to alleviate his thirst. Though in great pain, he expressed much anxiety for the event of the action; and as often as the crew of the *Victory* hurraed for the striking of a ship, a visible expression of joy marked the countenance of the dying hero. More than an hour elapsed from the time when Nelson received his wound, before Hardy could come to him. They shook hands in silence; Hardy in vain struggling to suppress the feelings of that painful moment. 'Well, Hardy,' said Nelson, 'how goes the day with us?' 'Very well,' replied

Hardy, "ten ships have struck, but five of the van have tacked, and show an intention to bear down upon the Victory. I have called two or three of our fresh ships round, and have no doubt of giving them a drubbing." "I hope," said Nelson, "none of our ships have struck?" Hardy answered, "There was no fear of that." Then, and not till then, Nelson spoke of himself. "I am a dead man, Hardy; I am going fast; it will be all over with me soon. Come nearer to me. Let my dear lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me." Hardy observed, that he hoped Mr. Beatty could yet hold out some prospect of life. "Oh no!" he replied, "it is impossible. My back is shot through. Beatty will tell you so." Captain Hardy then shook hands with him, and with a heart almost bursting, hastened upon deck; but returning after a while, he congratulated the dying commander on having gained a complete victory, after capturing fifteen of the enemy. "That's well," cried Nelson, "but I bargained for twenty." After telling Hardy to anchor, he requested that his body might be conveyed to his parents—not thrown overboard,—and stated that he left lady Hamilton and his daughter, Horatia, as a legacy to his country. His articulation now became difficult, but he was distinctly heard to say, "Thank God, I have done my duty." These words he repeatedly pronounced, and were the last which he uttered.

The man who had given the fatal wound from the Redoubtable, did not live to boast what he had done. An old quartermaster had seen him fire, and calling out, "That's he—that's he," two midshipmen aimed at him. When they took possession of the prize, they went into the mizzen-top, and found him dead; with one ball through his head, and another through his breast. All the honours which a great country could bestow were heaped upon the memory of Nelson. His brother was made an earl, with a grant of 6000*l.* a year; 10,000*l.* were voted to each of

his sisters, and 100,000*l.* for the purchase of an estate. So perfectly the hero performed his part, that the fleets of the enemy were not nearly defeated, but destroyed: new rates must be built, and a new race of men reared for them, before the possibility of invading our shores could again be contemplated. The fall of the first of naval commanders made a national affair, and took place at St. Paul's, with a procession most magnificent in the memory of us.

Sir Ralph Abercromby, who, at his unfortunate expedition to Egypt in which the duke of York acted under him, had the command of the army sent against the French in Egypt. He was unhorsed and wounded in the battle of Alexandria, notwithstanding which he gallantly disarmed his antagonist, and gave the sword to Sir Sidney Smith. He kept the field during the day, and was then conveyed on board the admiral's ship, and died the following week. His body was conveyed to Malta for interment, and his widow created a baroness, with 2000*l.* a year.

Robert Lord Clive, of a good family, went as a writer to India, and then changed the civil for the military service. He rose to command, and was chief agent in subduing the nabobs of Oude and Arcot; of adding great parts of their territories to the possessions of the East India company; and of placing at its disposal the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; for which important services he was raised to the peerage. From his day to the present the power of the native princes has gradually diminished, and the finest part of Hindustan, with a population native and English, of ninety millions, is now ruled by the British. Lord Clive was in 1773 threatened with an investigation similar to that of Warren Hastings, but the tact of Mr. Wedderburne stopped the inquiry; and in the next year, in a fit of despondency, he put an end to his life.

Admiral Duncan, celebrated for his defeat of the Dutch at Camperdown,

within sight of their own shores, and in the midst of a mutiny in his own fleet, 1797. To the officers who came to him for instructions, previously to the engagement with admiral de Winter, he jocularly said, 'you see, gentlemen, a *severe winter* approaching; I have only to advise you to keep up a *good fire*.' To the Dutch admiral himself, when he surrendered, he observed, seeing him to be almost as tall a man as himself, 'I wonder, sir, how you and I have escaped the balls!' Duncan was created a viscount, with a pension of 2000*l.* for his conduct on this occasion.

George Washington, descended from an ancient Cheshire family, entered the army early, distinguished himself against the French, married a rich widow, and spent fifteen years as a magistrate at his estate of Mount Vernon, in America, chiefly employed in agricultural pursuits. Called upon to lead the army of the revolted provinces, only 14,500 strong, he displayed great firmness and military tact, and at length saw the British army, under lord Cornwallis, surrender to the insurgents, 1781. It was in 1789 that he was chosen president of the new confederation; this authority he resigned, to the great regret of the people, into the hands of Mr. Adams, 1797, having conducted the infant nation through its weakest period of existence, with equal honesty and disinterestedness. He died, aged 67, 1799.

Paul Jones, a Scotsman, who, in the American service, turned privateer against this native country, destroyed the shipping in Whitehaven harbour, and attacked the mansion of lord Selkirk in Scotland, whence he carried off the plate and other valuables. He took the British frigate *Serapis* off Flamborough-head, and was rewarded by Louis XVI. with a valuable sword, though the French government afterwards refused his offer to act as an admiral in its service.

Captain James Cook, celebrated for his maritime discoveries, was a Yorkshire yeoman's son, who entered the

merchant-service at Whitby, but was afterwards grafted into the navy. He was at the capture of Quebec and Newfoundland; and in 1768 the government sent him in the *Endeavour* to the Pacific, to convey Messrs. Banks, Green, and Dr. Solander, to observe the transit of Venus. This was effected at Otaheite 1769; and Cook thoroughly explored the islands of New Zealand, and the vast continent of New Holland, on his way home. In his second voyage, 1771, he visited the antarctic regions, accompanied by Messrs. Forster, Wales, and others, to ascertain the existence or non-existence of a circum-polar southern continent; and after being satisfied that only icebergs were there, he commenced a voyage, 1776, having now the rank of post-captain, to the arctic regions, to ascertain whether or not there is a communication between the Pacific and Atlantic oceans. This point was not, of course, decided, and Cook resolved to winter, 1778, in the Sandwich islands. While at Owhyhee (one of the group), a boat belonging to the expedition was stolen by an islander; whereupon Cook seized the person of the king as a hostage, till the boat was restored. Although this method of obtaining restitution had been resorted to on former occasions, there was a disposition now to resist the proceeding: the people attacked the captain as he retreated towards the sea, and he, together with several of his attendants, fell victims to the fury of the islanders.

Jean de la Perouse, who, in 1785, proceeded, by the authority of the French government, with two ships on a voyage of discovery. The expedition crossed the Pacific, reached Manilla, and thence sailed past Japan to Kamtschatka. At Maouna, one of the Navigators' islands, the captain of the *Astrolabe* and several others of that ship, were killed by the natives in a quarrel; whereupon La Perouse, who was on board the *Boussole*, proceeded in company with the *Astrolabe* to the

English colony in New South Wales, and anchored in Botany-bay, at the moment that governor Philip, with the whole of the colonists, was sailing out of the bay for the new settlement at Port Jackson. This was in January 1788; and in March, the French left Botany-bay for the Isle of France, but were never heard of more.

James Bruce, descended from the Scottish kings, travelled in search of the source of the Nile. Proceeding to Gondar, in Abyssinia, he ingratiated himself with the semi-barbaric sovereign and his court, and in 1770 obtained the great object of his wishes, though the Portuguese jesuits had long before made the discovery. On his return to Gondar, he found the people engaged in civil war, and was detained two years before he could escape to Cairo, his journey to which city was attended with excessive privations. When returned to his patrimonial estate of Kinnaird, he published his travels; but from the extraordinary descriptions they contained, the public disputed the truth of his narration, and the adventures of baron Munchausen, at least an extended edition of them, came forth, amongst other satires, to ridicule his supposed exaggerations. Subsequent travellers, however, have shown that Mr. Bruce was worthy of credit. He died by a fall down a stone staircase, aged sixty-four, 1794.

Mungo Park, son of a Scottish farmer, after a journey of discovery in central Africa, settled as a surgeon at Peebles. An offer from government induced him to make a second trip; and, provided with an escort of thirty soldiers, and presents of every description for the natives, he reached the banks of the Niger 1805; but no further authentic account of him was ever heard.

Burckhardt, a Swiss, after studying the oriental languages at Cambridge, travelled to Aleppo, with a view to explore eventually the centre of Africa. He was however only enabled to visit Syria and Nubia, being seized with dysentery at Cairo, while preparing to

join the caravan to Timbuctoo. He died there, aged 32, 1816, and his interesting travels have been published by the African association in England.

Dr. Edcard Clarke, fellow of Jesus college, Cambridge, celebrated for his travels, especially in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. He has added MSS. to the stores of his university, and the nation is indebted to him for many relics of antiquity, such as the sarcophagus of Alexander, and a colossal statue of the Eleusinian Ceres. He died 1821.

William Cowper, the poet, nephew of lord chancellor Cowper, was born at Berkhamstead, of which his father was rector; and, after an education at Westminster, entered as a student at the inner-temple. When, however, offered by his relative, major Cowper, the lucrative post of clerk of the books of lords, he was compelled by nervous timidity to decline its acceptance, attempting even self-destruction that he might avoid compliance. The entire loss of reason followed; and on recovery, he found all his prospects blighted, his intended bride, his patron's daughter, estranged from him, and himself constrained to live on the mere pittance of his property. With a feeling of utter desertion, he went to board in the family of a clergyman at Huntingdon, Mr. Unwin, with whose widow he removed, in 1767, to Olney, Bucks, which thenceforth became the chief place of his abode. There he contracted a close intimacy with the curate, the celebrated Mr. Newton; and this friendship greatly influenced the subsequent opinions and state of mind of the poet. Supported by the maternal attentions of Mrs. Unwin, and visited by her son (a clergyman), by Hayley the poet, and a few other intellectual persons, he devoted himself to authorship when nearly fifty years of age, and became known by the publication of his 'Table Talk.' At the suggestion of lady Austen, who came to reside at Olney, he versified the story of John Gilpin, which she had related

to him. This got into print, without either the author's knowledge or his name; and all began to inquire who had written a ballad that was sung in every street, and with which the comedian Henderson excited roars of laughter upon the stage. Strange to say, "John Gilpin" ushered Cowper into the presence of the real public, as his *Table Talk* was known to few; and upon the appearance of 'The Task, by William Cowper, esq., author of John Gilpin,' nothing was wanting to give the book free circulation. This chef-d'œuvre of the poet is a didactic poem, discursive, and seizing upon any topic as it glanced upon the mind of the author: and compared with which, as Mr. Southey tastefully observes, 'the best productions of other authors in the same way, are like formal gardens opposed to the natural scenery of the woodlands.' A translation of Homer into blank verse, and an edition of Milton, occupied Cowper more or less from the issuing of 'The Task' until his death. A few years before his decease the poet's melancholy again subdued the powers of his mind; in consequence of which the Rev. Mr. Johnson, of Dereham, his kinsman, removed him, together with Mrs. Unwin, now paralytic, into Norfolk, 1795, soon after intelligence had been received of lord Spencer's having obtained a 300*l.* pension for him. At Dereham, and with occasional visits to the neighbouring sea-coast for change of air, Cowper passed the remaining years of his sad life, and closed it in the same despair that had clung to him from his youth, in his 69th year, 1800.

As a letter-writer, Cowper can compete with any who have either accidentally or designedly excelled in epistolary composition: he is the most easy delineator, in this way, of the expressions of the heart, that we can hope to find, even if we refer to Swift, lady Montague, and a host of other sensible and elegant correspondents; and no man knew better than he how to give interest to the merest trivial point of social communication.

As respects the hypochondriasis of

the poet, on which so much has been written, it was his misfortune, that, upon recovering from his first illness, he fell into the society of persons who had neither the means nor the wish to go out of the ordinary routine of a retired country life, to divert him from himself. This was purely his misfortune, and certainly no fault of those who so kindly received him. The intimacy with Mr. Newton, however, without the slightest imputation on the memory of that well-intentioned man, could hardly fail to do mischief; hypochondriasis, in any shape, is aggravated by most modes of reasoning, as it usually claims, and with no small degree of pertinacity, an exception for its own peculiar case. Hear, too, what Mr. Newton himself says, in a letter: 'I believe my name is up about the country for preaching people mad; I suppose we have near a dozen, in different degrees, disordered in their heads, and most of them I believe truly gracious people. This has been no small trial to me, and I have felt sometimes as I suppose David might feel when the Lord smote Uzza for touching the ark. He was displeased; and I have found my spirit rising against what he sees fit to permit. But if he brings them through fire and water safe to his kingdom, whatever they may suffer by the way, they are less to be pitied than the mad people of the world, who think themselves in their senses, and take occasion to scoff at the gospel.' Cheerfulness, if not actual mirth, was what Cowper required. Hypochondriacs always essay merry subjects, both as writers and speakers, to get a momentary respite from the gloom which broods over their spirits, and to lose sight for a while of the hair-suspended sword, which threatens to descend upon their devoted heads. They are to persons not so afflicted a perfect paradox. Hence Cowper's delight when a lively companion, like lady Austen, was added to his society; hence the accidental passing through the place of a troop of soldiers with a band of music, the unexpected sight of

a fox-chase, the escape of his tame hares, were so many eras in the monotonous life of the hypochondriac; and he sits down purposely to communicate to his distant friends the joy such unaccustomed occurrences had procured him. When Mr. Newton, on the other hand, had been on a visit to Olney, after his removal to his London cure, observe how Cowper writes to him: 'You know not what I suffered while you were here, nor was there any need you should. Your friendship for me would have made you, in some degree, a partaker of my woes; and your share in them would have been increased by your inability to help me. Perhaps indeed they took a keener edge from the consideration of your presence. The friend of my heart, the person with whom I had formerly taken sweet counsel, no longer useful to me as a minister, no longer pleasant to me as a Christian, was a spectacle that must necessarily add the bitterness of mortification to the sadness of despair.' All his former alarms had returned; he who had been able to shake off the insane apprehensions of instant death, and of the equally hurried commencement of a state of eternal woe, was again, by his communion with a mind so opposite in character to his own, sunk into his former state of despair, and with difficulty restored.

To those of Cowper's readers who are inclined to cavil because one so evidently well-intentioned, and who has benefited the cause of virtue so materially, should have been thus afflicted, it should be said, let them not uncharitably conclude that he was deserted by his Maker on account of sin. Such has been the mode in which many, ignorant of the nature of his malady, have accounted for his state. Hypochondriasis has its origin *always* in *bodily* derangement. The good Dr. Watts expressed his astonishment gravely enough when he heard that the then youthful Samuel Johnson, amid his hypochondriacal fears, was harassed by a constant dread of death; and even uncharitably remarked that

'he must be far from God who had such a fear.' Yet he himself, a few years later, in the paroxysm of a nervous illness, believed he was constructed of glass, and feared a collision with the things about him; and conceived his spare creature as he was, that a common doorway was too small for his equal. Mr. Southey certainly slightly errs, when he affirms that hypochondriacs are *not* as wretched as they pronounce themselves to be. That they constantly affect a happiness which they vain would be cheating themselves, as it were, with the hope that the effect will produce the cause, is true enough; hence, when authors, their sufferings appear but little in their works. Some of the choicest productions in our language, and in the language of all nations, have sprung from the pangs of hypochondriasis; and the pages that have made a host of readers gay, have been the price of a malady 'which seems to imbody every other form of affliction.' Hypochondriacs can be diverted, it is also true, from reflecting upon the delusion which goads them, and converse like other men, and in this respect are different from the insane: but he must be ranked amongst the unhappiest of the unhappy, who possesses within himself, however blameless, something akin to a wounded conscience, and who only does not feel the full horrors of his wretchedness, because, by habit, he has acquired the power of occasionally keeping his thoughts from the monster that haunts his imagination.

Robert Burns, while labouring at the plough for his father, a small farmer of Scotland, obtained the rudiments of education. The tales of an old woman about the farm, and the occasional sight of poetical works, at length induced the young rustic to court the muses; and he produced some amatory and other verses, which brought him many admiring friends. Ardent in temperament as was the young poet, he was soon lost in the round of convivial habits, and took a hearty dislike to his plebeian occupation. One or two trades, and ultimately a small farm of

his own, were then tried with ill success, and he was on the point of sailing for Jamaica, when a letter from Dr. Blacklock induced him to visit Edinburgh. His success was far greater than his expectations had warranted; and becoming possessed of 500*l.* by the sale of a volume of poems, he left the metropolis, again took a farm, and obtained an exciseman's place at Dumfries. He still sent forth short poems of touching pathos, especially adapted to the taste of his country; but his intemperate habits increased, and he fell a prey to a disorder attendant upon such a course, 1796, aged thirty-seven. The poems of Burns display a vigour of sentiment, and a purity of style (clad as they are in a rustic garb, and imbued as they are with the coarse and indecent allusions of his grade), that will not only ensure fame to their author, but advance him high in the records of native genius. His history, however, affords a striking example of the utter futility of extraordinary talents; nay, of their conversion from a blessing to a curse, if the possessor be devoid of prudence and self-control; defects always the result of some negligence as regards early moral and religious culture.

Oliver Goldsmith, the poet, was born in Ireland. He left Leyden university, where he had studied medicine, to make, with no money in his pocket, the tour of Europe; and on foot he travelled through France, Germany, and Italy. Coming to England, he was some time assistant in a school at Peckham, and then turned author. His *Traveller*, *Vicar of Wakefield*, *History of England*, and *Deserted Village*, and his play of *She Stoops to Conquer*, published all in seven years, established his fame; and he was taken into the circle of the learned of his day. He died, however, in embarrassed circumstances, aged forty-three, 1774. His character as a poet rests upon his '*Traveller*' and '*Deserted Village*,' in which delicacy of description, pathos, and simplicity of narration, are every where remarkably conspicuous. In his prose writings he was easy and un-

affected, and his '*Vicar of Wakefield*,' written in haste as it was, is an admirable specimen of his inventive genius.

Richard Glover, some time member for Weymouth, became known by his epic poem of '*Leonidas*,' a work wanting the fire of imagination, but abounding in variety of incident, noble sentiments, and animated descriptions. He died 1785, aged seventy-four.

Thomas Chatterton, born at Bristol, of humble parents, published his own poems as those of Rowley, a priest in Edward IV.'s time. Nothing could exceed the grave and systematic manner in which a number of venerable antiquaries deceived themselves on the occasion: it was at length fully proved that, consisting as they do of all classes of composition, tragic, epic, pastoral, and ballad, many abounding in beauty, sublimity, and pathos, they were the production of Chatterton alone. The youth falling into a state of utter indigence, and being wholly without principle, destroyed himself by poison, at eighteen, 1770.

Thomas Warton, educated at Winchester, and Trinity (Oxford), became known as an elegant poet and critic. He was a bachelor, and passed his days in the retirement of the university. The best of his poems are, '*The Progress of Discontent*' and '*The Suicide*;' the imagery of which is bold, correct, and lively, while the rural descriptions are especially happy. He was some time laureate; and his brother, Dr. Joseph Warton, was long at the head of Winchester school. He died 1790, aged sixty-two.

Sir William Jones, after an education at Harrow and Oxford, was sent to India as a judge. In this new world he formed an Asiatic society, to illustrate the history and antiquities of the east; studied the Sanscrit, and became so perfect therein, that the Brahmins regarded him as a wonder; and passed a large portion of his leisure in illustrating the scriptures from oriental habits. He shone also as a poet; and died aged forty-eight, 1794, regretted as a truly Christian character, an ele-

gant scholar, and the best known linguist of his day.

James Beattie, one of the masters of the grammar-school at Aberdeen, was author of 'The Minstrel,' a poem which will ever be celebrated for the delicacy of its sentiment, and the beauty and fidelity of its imagery. His 'Essay on Truth,' written to refute Hume and other sceptics, was so highly popular, as to be translated into various languages; the king gave him 200*l.* a year, Oxford a degree, and Johnson and other literati honoured him with their especial notice, on its publication. He died 1803.

Erasmus Darwin, both physician and poet, settled at Lichfield, after an education at Cambridge, and made plants and flowers the subject of his muse. His 'Botanic Garden,' in which he treats first of the economy of vegetables, and then of what he calls the loves of the plants, is elegant and easy, but devoid of sublimity. Mr. Frere, in his 'Loves of the Triangles,' ridiculed the author with some ability. Dr. Darwin died at Derby, very suddenly, aged seventy, 1802, respected for his benevolent character.

Robert Bloomfield, a ploughman, who, through the patronage of Mr. Capel Lofft, was enabled to give to the world his 'Farmer's Boy,' a poem on which his fame rests. It is singularly regular and smooth, considering the author's defect of education; but its principal merit consists in the description of rural scenes, which none but a practical farmer could so accurately paint. He died 1823, aged fifty-seven.

Henry Kirke White, son of a butcher at Nottingham, while clerk to an attorney, employed his leisure hours in the composition of poetry; and being introduced to Mr. Wilberforce, that gentleman placed him at St. John's, Cambridge, where consumption carried him off at the age of twenty, 1806. 'Clifton Grove' is the only poem of length he produced: it has many beauties of the pathetic kind, but there is a gloomy and querulous strain in all his young man's productions, the result of

ill health and disappointed views, which will probably ever confine them to a small circle of readers.

Dr. Wolcot, at first a physician, accompanying Sir William Trelawney to Jamaica, became a divine. Disliking, however, to preach to a black congregation, he settled in Cornwall as a physician again; but ultimately preferred authorship, and came to London. Here, as a satirist, under the assumed name of Peter Pindar, he ridiculed first the royal academicians, and then certain innocent peculiarities in the excellent George III. He died 1819, aged eighty; and the best that can be said of his satires, with all their humour, is, that they served, at the time of their celebrity, to lower the importance of much empty pretension.

William Hayley, a gentleman of some fortune in Sussex, is known for his 'Triumph of Temper,' a poem which has been generally admired, though lord Byron observed, 'it tried his temper to read it.' His 'Life of Cowper,' whose friendship he cultivated, was long very popular, though lately eclipsed by the more sterling work of Southey.

Dr. Thomas Blacklock, born of humble parents in Scotland, had lost his sight in infancy by smallpox, but it did not prevent his entering at Edinburgh university. By hearing the works of celebrated writers read, he displayed a talent for poetry of no ordinary kind: he was even allowed by the presbytery to enter the church, and held the living of Kircudbright two years. He was author of the excellent article 'Blind' in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, as well as of the notes to 'Music' in the same work.

Schiller, an illustrious German poet and historian, was son of a major in the army, and at nineteen produced his play of 'The Robbers,' which at once raised him to celebrity. As an historian, his 'Thirty Years' War' is considered his chef-d'œuvre. His last effort was 'Wallenstein,' the most splendid and extraordinary of dramas, in which the overstrained representa-

tions of passion, in violation of truth and nature, are quite in accordance with the German taste for hyperbole. Schiller died 1805, aged forty-six.

Wieland, son of a protestant divine in Suabia, gave up the law for literature, and was patronized by the duchess of Saxe Weimar. After his retirement to his small estate near Zurich, Buonaparte visited him, and sent him the legion of honour. He wrote many romances and novels; but his favourite poems in Germany are 'Musarion' and 'Oberon,' the latter of which has been elegantly translated by Sotheby into English. He died 1813, aged eighty.

Alfieri, the dramatic poet of Italy, married the countess of Albany, widow of the young pretender. His tragedies, on subjects of classical history, are highly esteemed by his countrymen; but have far too much grandiloquence to please the general taste. Alfieri died 1803, aged fifty-four.

Klopstock, a German poet, who, with a view to raise the character of German poetry, published his 'Messiah,' in twenty cantos, containing 20,000 hexameters, unfit as the Teutonic languages are considered for the rules of ancient poetry. Though the work offended many, by the singular mixture of sacred history with poetical inventions, it obtained the author no small share of fame. He died 1803, aged seventy-eight.

Samuel Johnson, the most distinguished of modern moral writers, was son of a bookseller of Lichfield, and for some time a student at Pembroke, Oxford. His translation of Pope's *Messiah* into Latin verse first displayed his great talents; but his father's embarrassments hurried him from the university, and after being assistant in a school, and then marrying and keeping one himself (wherein David Garrick was one of his three pupils), he came to London, and resolved to live by his pen. In 1755 appeared his great work, the English Dictionary; his tragedy of 'Irene' was brought out

by his friend Garrick; and the 'Ram-
bler' was published twice a week during two years. These publications, though popular, still left the author in low circumstances: and in a twelvemonth only after the appearance of the Dictionary, he was arrested for a debt of five guineas, from which the kindness of Richardson, the novelist, relieved him. The 'Idler' was his next work, and 'Rasselas,' written in haste, to raise money for his mother's funeral, succeeded it. At length the government noticed his exertions: and a pension of 300*l.* was granted him 'for what he had done, not for any thing required of him.' Oxford gave him the degree of LL.D. and Dublin the same; and Johnson now busied himself in his 'Lives of the Poets,' a work of great merit, which exhibits, with few exceptions, his soundness as a critic, and his benevolent and charitable views as a man. The loss of his friend, Mr. Thrale, in 1781, at whose hospitable mansion at Streatham he had passed portions of fifteen of the happiest years of his life, deeply affected him, and his health began soon after to decline; but though, from constitutional melancholy, he had been habitually accustomed to dread the approach of death, he was fully prepared for it when the period arrived for his passage from this transitory scene. He died, aged seventy-five, 1784.

Charitable, humane, generous, and affectionate, it may truly be said that, notwithstanding his little errors of temper, there was scarcely a virtue in principle which Johnson did not possess. His goodness flowed from the heart, and his religion was the pure stream from the soul, humble, devout, contrite, and pious. As a literary character, his fame stands on very high grounds: correctness, elegance, and variety, every where clothed under a strong and nervous style, captivate, enliven, and instruct. Mr. Boswell, in giving to the world his memoirs, has compiled the most interesting piece of biography extant; and this not for the matter, but the manner.

The book is a journal of Johnson's life; and when the great moralist appears on the scene, we hear him speak, and, with our mind's eye, comprehend the dimensions and peculiarities, the involuntary startings and the voluntary dogmatism, of the great lexicographer, to the very letter. 'As we close this book,' say the Edinburgh reviewers, 'the club-room is before us, and the table on which stands the omelet for Nugent, and the lemons for Johnson. There are assembled those heads, which live for ever on the canvass of Reynolds. There are the spectacles of Burke, and the tall thin form of Langton; the courtly sneer of Beauclerk, and the beaming smile of Garrick; Gibbon tapping his snuff-box, and Sir Joshua with his trumpet in his ear. In the foreground is that strange figure, which is as familiar to us as the figures of those among whom we have been brought up;—the gigantic body; the huge massy face, seamed with the scars of disease; the brown coat, the black worsted stockings, the gray wig with the scorched foretop; the dirty hands, with the nails bitten and pared to the quick. We see the eyes and mouth moving with convulsive twitches; we see the heavy form rolling; we hear it puffing; and then comes the 'Why, sir?' and the 'What then, sir?' and the 'No, sir!' and the 'You don't see your way through the question, sir!'

Dr. Hugh Blair, who, when pastor of the High church at Edinburgh, published in 1777 the first volume of his sermons, which Mr. Strahan, the king's printer, declined to purchase, until induced to do so by Dr. Johnson's high opinion. Its sale was so rapid, that the publishers bought the succeeding volumes at very high prices, while the government rewarded him with a pension of 200*l.* at the suggestion of queen Charlotte. In divinity, these discourses must yield to the stores of many of our old as well as modern divines: but as practical and elegantly constructed homilies, they are highly valuable, and have

done great good. His 'Lectures on Composition' form an able digest of the rules of eloquence, as applicable to the various species of oratory. Dr. Blair died 1800, aged eighty-five.

John Logan, a divine of the Scottish kirk, whose tragedy of 'Runnimeid' was acted with great applause at Edinburgh. But his celebrity is founded on his powers as a pulpit-orator; and perhaps the whole circle of English theology affords no specimens of eloquence of the persuasive kind equal to some passages in Logan's sermons. Written as they were, not for publication, but simply for preaching to an ordinary congregation. All students of divinity in our own church would do well in making themselves acquainted with these sterling discourses. In tragic poetry this good man attempted what was not his forte: he is all tenderness, simplicity, elegance,—but fire and sublimity, so essential to seize the passions in dramatic compositions of the higher class, are in Logan singularly wanting. He died, aged only forty, 1788.

David Hume, the historian, was born at Edinburgh, and was secretary to lord Hertford in his embassy to Paris. In the summer of 1765 he was *chargé-d'affaires* there; and soon after, on his return to Scotland, was persuaded to become under-secretary of state to general Conway. In 1769 he returned to Edinburgh very opulent, as he observes, with 1000*l.* a year, healthy, though somewhat stricken in years, with the prospect of enjoying long the *otium cum dignitate*. In 1776, however, a disorder of the bowels carried him to the grave, at the age of sixty-five. His 'History of England to the fall of the Stuarts' and his 'Natural History of Religion,' are his principal works. Though Hume possesses the deep research of the historian, and the patience of the philosopher, he is to be read with caution; as his principles, both religious and moral, are insidiously clothed in fallacious language, and tend to undermine the salutary doctrines which can alone guide

us through this scene of sorrow and error.

Edward Gibbon, the historian, was educated at Westminster and Oxford, and turned Roman catholic; but was restored at Lausanne to the protestant faith. For eight years he had a seat in parliament, and at the peace of 1763 travelled to Rome, where, amidst the ruins of the capitol, he planned his 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' This able work is throughout tinged with sceptical opinions; and though elegantly written, the style is commonly too dignified for the subject, while from a wish to avoid needful repetitions, the author is often very obscure. He died, aged fifty-seven, 1794.

Adam Smith, a Scotsman, after completing his studies at Oxford, became professor of moral philosophy at Glasgow. His 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' wherein he makes sympathy the source of our opinions upon the propriety or impropriety of actions, and his 'Essay on the Origin of Languages,' introduced him to the learned; and after a long residence in France, during which he formed friendships with Necker, Marmontel, and other men of note, he wrote his great work 'The Wealth of Nations,' which may be said to have originated the modern science of political economy. Dr. Smith was a speculative man, and a freethinker. He died 1790, aged sixty-seven.

Laurence Sterne, born in Ireland, was grandson of an archbishop of York, and educated at Cambridge. During a residence of twenty years on his livings of Stillington and Sutton, he was no otherwise known than as a reading, painting, musical, and sporting divine. In 1759 came out the first volume of 'Tristram Shandy,' which went on to nine, and was vastly popular. It was an attempt to ridicule pedantry and false philosophy; but large portions were shown to have been borrowed from Burton. His 'Sentimental Journey' had still greater success; but in this he has exaggerated impulsive feeling to an extent often closely bordering on absurdity, whilst

the morality of the book is highly exceptionable. Sterne, who wrote under the assumed name of Yorick, died 1768, aged fifty-five.

Richard Porson, the son of a parish clerk, was sent to Eton and Trinity college, Cambridge, at the cost of some gentlemen who had admired his early display of talent. His extraordinary proficiency in Greek occasioned his unanimous election to that professorship at Cambridge; and towards the close of his life he was secretary to the London Institution, with a salary of 200*l.* His habits, however, were careless and convivial, and he passed to his grave, 1808, without having secured many friends. An intuitive perception of things, a memory extraordinarily retentive, and a judgment which pronounced accurately upon the merits of every thing it weighed, render the fame of Porson undying; and his admirable notes on the *Medea*, *Hecuba*, *Phænisia*, and *Orestes* of Euripides, place him at once in the highest rank of critical scholars. On examining his skull after death, it was found one of the thickest that had ever been scrutinized by the phrenologist.

Dr. Samuel Parr, eminent as a critic and Greek scholar, was son of an apothecary at Harrow, and educated there and at Cambridge. Failing in his attempt to succeed Dr. Sumner as head master of Harrow school, he opened a rival house at Stanmore, and ran away with forty-five of the Harrow pupils. The undertaking, however, did not flourish; and he was happy in obtaining the perpetual curacy of Hatton, Warwickshire, where he resided the remainder of his days, though Sir Francis Burdett gave him, in addition, the living of Graffnam, and bishop Lowth a stall. From this period Dr. Parr, even in his sermons, entered into the political agitations of the day, siding with the whigs, who gave him 300*l.* a year in an annuity from their club. He died, aged seventy-eight, 1825. All the works of Parr, beyond sermons, are in the form of notes to other authors.

Matthew Gregory Lewis, an author

of terrific romances, whose works were highly popular in England at the period of their publication, and have served as a model for whole libraries of inferior productions. His father was under-secretary at war, and he himself had a seat in parliament, though he rarely spoke. His *Monk*, *Castle Spectre*, and *Bravo of Venice*, are amongst his most celebrated productions; and from the popularity of the first, he has commonly been known as *Monk Lewis*. He died 1818.

Dr. John Jortin was educated at the Charter-house and Cambridge, and died vicar of Kensington, aged 71, 1770. The sermons which he preached at his living of *St. Dunstan's-in-the-east*, have been deservedly admired for their sound divinity, conciseness, and eloquence.

Dr. Vicesimus Knox, thirty-three years head master of Tunbridge school, was educated at Merchant Tailor's and Cambridge. He was a very elegant Latin scholar; and his *Essays*, *Liberal Education*, and *Christian Philosophy*, are too well known to require praise or description. There is a dignity in the style of Knox, which engages the attention of all who pay attention to English composition, and an elegance and propriety of expression, not surpassed by any writer of his day. He died 1821, aged sixty-nine.

Dr. Richard Burn, author of two works of great utility, one on the office of a justice of peace, and the other on ecclesiastical law, was vicar of Orton, Westmoreland, forty-nine years, and died there 1789.

William Paley completed his studies at Cambridge; and after being some years assistant in a school, became fellow and tutor of his college. By the patronage of Law, bishop of Carlisle, he obtained preferment, and dedicated to that prelate his '*Elements of Moral and Political Philosophy*.' The object of his '*Horæ Paulinæ*,' is to gather from the Acts and Epistles such passages as furnish examples of undesigned coincidence, and thus prove the scriptures authentic, inde-

pendently of inspiration. His '*Evidences of Christianity*,' containing a view of the arguments for the truth of our holy religion, the most complete that has ever appeared, are drawn up with a clearness and logical skill peculiar to Paley. His last work was '*Natural Theology*,' the object of which is to trace a final cause in the operations of the Deity; or, in other words, to show that the Creator had an object, and that a benevolent one, in bringing every thing into being. Paley confines himself to the human frame for examples. Although the moral and political philosophy of Paley is now become a text-book, not a few of its propositions are liable to exception; and expediency is very frequently admitted in place of that which is right. In private life, Paley was the most facetious man imaginable, himself indulging in wit and merriment, and greatly admiring it in others. He died, aged sixty-one, 1805.

John Howard, the philanthropist, was the son of a carpet-seller in London; and setting out to view the effects of the earthquake at Lisbon, he was captured by a privateer, and sent to a French prison. His confinement there, and the experience he obtained of gaols by serving the office of sheriff of Bedfordshire some time after, induced him to attempt their improvement; and being flattered by the approbation of the commons, he travelled over the continent to inspect the various places of incarceration. While benevolently visiting one at Cherson, where a malignant epidemic was raging, he caught the disorder, and died 1790, aged sixty-four.

Dr. Wm. Robertson, the historian, was principal of the university of Edinburgh. His history of Scotland during the reigns of Mary and James VI., gained him great applause in his own country; and that of Charles V. was equally popular abroad. Of all his works, the history of Charles V. is indisputably the best. He is an uniformly accurate writer, who, without much warmth, keeps along the line of

his narrative in a style of measured dignity. He died 1793, aged seventy-two.

John Wesley, founder of the methodists, went from the Charter-house to Christ-church, Oxford, and was so marked there for austerity of manners, that he, and a party which adopted his opinions, were designated methodians, or methodists, by their fellow-colleagues. In 1735 (after being ordained) he crossed to America to convert the natives; where he repelled a young lady from the altar, because of her union with another, after promising him her hand. In 1738 he began his career of proselytism, in the strictest sense; and, believing himself set free from the bonds of sin by divine illumination, he sent forth apostles to declare the reformed faith. He married a widow of fortune in 1751, but she soon quitted his house; and he gave himself up wholly to spiritual labours. He affected humility with the multitude, but kept the supreme authority in his own hands; and the whole machine which he had contrived, was thus worked by him, and in the most remote parts of the empire and of the world, his censures had all the weight of law. Possessed of an excellent constitution, and endued with coolness, perseverance, and popular eloquence, this extraordinary man, after exercising absolute authority for more than half a century, went to his grave in his 88th year, 1791. With regard to the distinctive tenets of the methodists, it may be affirmed that salvation by faith, without works, however they may impugn the other opinions of Calvin, is the leading one. They maintain the articles of the church of England, her liturgy, and her discipline; and appear unwilling to vary from her general laws in any particular beyond episcopal ordination.

Thomas Lord Erskine, who went at first to sea, next entered the army, and at twenty-six became a barrister. He displayed such tact in the management of captain Baillier's case, who had been removed by lord Sandwich

from Greenwich hospital, that, on leaving the court he received thirty retainers from attorneys, and from that moment began to rise. For twenty-five years, he was engaged in almost every cause of importance, but especially on the defensive side in political prosecutions. He was attorney-general to the prince of Wales; and in the brief administration of lord Grenville, 1806, lord chancellor. His last days were passed in straitened circumstances; and there were many points in his conduct at this period, over which the veil of charity must be drawn. He died 1823, aged seventy-three. Lord Erskine's talent lay in the power of commanding at the instant all the resources of his mind, and in applying them with extraordinary dexterity; and preferring, as he did, to give his aid to political delinquents, he is allowed to have established, in that unenviable labour, some important controverted constitutional doctrines. There is a pleasing anecdote told, connected with Erskine's first speech at the bar. So oppressed was he by nervous agitation before he began, that it crossed his mind he was unfit for the profession he had undertaken, and he even entertained thoughts of retiring unheard. At the moment, however, of turning to quit the court, his gown was arrested by a projecting nail; and the accident giving him time to reflect, he indulged the inspiring notion, that not a nail, but one of his infant children, had seized his garment, with a view of urging him to proceed, for the sake of those dearer to him than himself.

William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester, a celebrated controversialist, who left the law for the church. His great work is 'The Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated on the principles of a religious deist, from the omission of the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments in the Jewish dispensation.' This bold and paradoxical work necessarily drew upon him many attacks, all parties agreeing in censuring the theory on

which his reasoning was founded. As a writer his style is coarse, and he had no mercy on his opponents, in reference to which Johnson says, he resolved, like the Roman emperor, 'to hate those he feared.' He died 1779, aged eighty-one.

Zachary Pearce, the excellent bishop of Rochester, deservedly known by his commentary on the Gospels and Acts. He bestowed on Bromley college, Kent, 5000*l.* for the greater advantage of the widows, and died 1774.

John Douglas, bishop of Salisbury, had been a chaplain in the army, and was present at the battle of Fontenoy. His powers as a writer were strong and multifarious: his most original work is 'The Criterion; or, a Discourse on Miracles,' designed as a defence of Christianity against the attacks of sceptical writers, especially Hume. He died 1807, aged eighty-six.

Thomas Percy, bishop of Dromore. His most popular works are, 'The Relics of Ancient English Poetry' and the poem of 'The Hermit of Warkworth.' He died 1811, aged eighty-three.

Robert Lowth, bishop of London, celebrated for his knowledge of Hebrew and his general talents. He wrote, amongst other works, a Treatise on the Poetry of the Hebrews, the Life of Wykeham, and an English Grammar. In the decline of life, this very amiable prelate was afflicted by the loss of two daughters, one of whom was carried off at the tea-table, and of his eldest son. He died 1787, aged seventy-six.

George Horne, bishop of Norwich, was educated at Maidstone and Oxford, and became president of Magdalen college. His whole life was one of utility and benevolence; and his 'Commentary on the Book of Psalms,' will ever be the consolation of the devout Christian. The bishop's chaplain, the rev. Wm. Jones, perpetual curate of Nayland, wrote, to support the government during the French revolution, a very valuable collection of tracts, entitled 'The Scholar armed against the Errors of the Times;' and both him-

self and the bishop became Hutchinsonians. Dr. Horne died 1792, aged sixty-two, and Mr. Jones 1801, aged seventy-five.

Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, who owed his preferment to his valuable 'Dissertations on the Prophecies' which have been remarkably fulfilled, and are at this time fulfilling in the world; and his fame rests securely on the admirable acquaintance with scripture displayed in that work. He died 1782, aged seventy-nine.

Horace Walpole, son of the famous Sir Robert, refused, when he became earl of Orford by the death of his nephew, to adopt the title in his old age. Preferring literary ease to political turmoil, he retired from his seat in parliament, and at his seat, Strawberry-hill, near Twickenham, which he adorned with all the features of Gothic times, erected a printing-press, and published some of the most admired works in a very elegant style. He was liberal to the poor, but not the patron of the learned. He wrote the romance of the Castle of Otranto, a Catalogue of royal and noble authors, and the tragedy of the Mysterious Mother; and died 1797, aged eighty.

William Stevens, a learned bosier, the cousin of bishop Horne, who, to an acquaintance with the Hebrew language, joined a philanthropic spirit, and was ever inclined to aid the indigent, reclaim the wicked, and encourage undertakings from which society was to receive benefit. He did much in behalf of the Scottish episcopal church, and had the happiness of numbering amongst his intimate friends some of the leading members in the church and law. A large body of distinguished persons still bear testimony to the excellence of his character, by assembling more than once every year as 'Nobody's Club,' Mr. Stevens himself having assumed the modest appellation of *vudeis*, and being the first to take the chair at its foundation in 1800. The life of this worthy man has been written by judge Park, in a

style which forcibly reminds the reader, by the same air of verisimilitude and unaffected benevolence, of the biographies of Isaak Walton. Mr. Stevens died a bachelor, 1807, aged 74.

Sir William Blackstone, who was made a judge of the common pleas 1770, after having been principal of New-inn-hall, Oxford. His great work is 'Commentaries on the Laws of England,' in which he aspires to the high rank of a philosopher of jurisprudence. The book being confined to the exposition of the British laws as they are, furnishes the student with the legal reasons for what is established, rather than instructs him in the general principles of national legislation. The judge died 1780, aged fifty-six.

Benjamin Kennicott, the celebrated Hebraist, had preferment bestowed upon him to enable him to complete his vast labour, which many learned bodies, and even foreign princes, aided with their purse: this was no less than the collating of the various MSS. of the Hebrew Old Testament. The Hebrew bible of the doctor appeared, with its various readings, 1776.

Thomas Pennant, a man of fortune in Wales, who, besides publishing works of natural history, attempted to illustrate the antiquities of his country. Of his various tours in England he has left pleasing and instructive accounts. He died 1798, aged seventy-two.

William Melmoth, the elegant translator of Pliny's Letters, was author of 'Fitzosborne's Letters,' much admired for their polished style, and judicious observations on various moral and literary topics. He was the son of an eminent lawyer, who published an excellent book, called 'The great Importance of a religious Life.' The father died 1743, and the son 1799.

Dr. Joseph Priestley, a Socinian preacher, who becoming known to Franklin, turned his attention to physics. When librarian to lord Shelburne, he greatly distinguished himself by a treatise on æriform fluids; and indeed may be considered the founder of the science of pneumatic

chemistry. His doctrine of phlogiston, however, founded on the existence of a certain inflammable principle or matter in combustible bodies, though wonderfully applauded and supported for a time, the doctor lived to see exploded. Lord Shelburne deservedly took umbrage at the philosopher's expressions of doubt as to the immateriality of the soul; and a separation, with 150*l.* per annum, being the result, Dr. Priestley removed to Birmingham, to preach to an Arian congregation, 1780. It was in 1791 that a party, favourable to his political notions, met in the town, to celebrate the taking of the Bastille by the French revolutionary mob; and another party, assembling to oppose the advocates of liberty, attacked the meeting-houses, as so many nurseries of sedition, and together with them, destroyed the house, library, manuscripts, and philosophical instruments of Dr. Priestley. The philosopher, after obtaining partial compensation for his loss from the county, removed to Hackney, and ultimately to America, where he was enabled to give free course to his sentiments as regarded religion and government, and where he died 1804, aged seventy-one.

Anne Radcliffe, a novel-writer, whose maiden name was Ward. Her 'Mysteries of Udolpho' is her best work, and at once placed her at the head of a department of fiction then rising into considerable esteem. She possessed, in a high degree, the power of exciting expectation, and of delaying the catastrophe, without tiring or disappointing the reader. Her descriptions of country, as the prospect changes to the traveller, are often beautiful in the extreme; and her mode of opening to the view of the imagination scenes of the terrific kind, has never been surpassed even by any of her male competitors. She died 1823, aged fifty-nine.

Richard Watson, when a fellow of Trinity, Cambridge, became noted for his singular dress, consisting of a coarse mottled Westmoreland tunic, and blue yarn stockings. He paid so

much attention to chemistry, as to be elected its professor; but he at length entered into the political controversies of the day, taking the whig side, and entering into holy orders, was raised to the see of Landaff by the interest of the duke of Rutland. His 'Apology for the Bible,' in refutation of Paine's 'Age of Reason,' had a very beneficial effect; as also had his 'Address to the People,' wherein he gives up his former favourable opinion of the French revolution, and calls on the nation to keep out French principles. The bishop died 1816, aged seventy-nine.

James Harris, the learned philologist, was nephew of lord Shaftesbury, author of 'The Characteristics.' From Wadham, Oxford, he entered at Lincoln's Inn, obtained a seat in parliament, and became a lord of the treasury. His great work is 'Hermes,' a philosophical inquiry respecting universal grammar. He died at Salisbury, his native place, 1780, aged seventy-one.

Henry Home, lord Kaimes, a Scotch judge, who, amongst other legal works, produced 'The Statute Law of Scotland, abridged,' a most popular, as it has been a most useful publication. He shone also as a metaphysical disputant, advocating the doctrine of philosophical necessity; and his 'Elements of Criticism,' intended to do away all established rules of composition, made, for many years, a great noise in the world. He died, aged eighty-six, 1782.

John Newton, a divine who, in his fortieth year, obtained holy orders, after a youth passed at sea in the prosecution of the slave trade. Lord Dartmouth gained for him the curacy of Olney, where, in a fifteen years' residence, he formed his celebrated friendship with the poet Cowper; and he ultimately obtained the living of St. Mary Woolnoth, London. His chief work is 'Cardiphonia, or the Utterance of the Heart,' an extraordinary production, considering the defective education of the author, and

the poor preparation for the ministry that a sailor's life, and beyond all a slave-trader's occupation, could be supposed to afford. The work bears undoubted evidence of a master-mind; and though tinged throughout with the peculiar tenets of Calvinism, and having in it many highly exceptionable passages, a vast deal of benefit may be derived from its cautious perusal.

Henry Mackenzie, a Scottish advocate, and the last of the old class of novelists, was author of 'The Man of Feeling,' and other works of the sentimental kind, wholly free from the exaggeration and corrupt tendency of the impulsive school. He died, aged eighty-five, 1831.

Samuel Ireland, a salesman of scarce books and prints, who attempted to deceive the world by the publication of 'Miscellaneous Papers of William Shakspeare.' Amongst them was a tragedy called 'Vortigern,' which was performed at Drury Lane 1796; but the discernment of a British audience quickly detected the cheat. By the subsequent confessions of his son, William Ireland, it seems that the latter imposed the papers upon his parent, whom he wholly exculpates from participation in the deception.

Richard Hurd, son of a farmer, became fellow of Emmanuel, Cambridge, and rose in the church by his talents, displayed particularly in his 'Lectures on the Prophecies.' When bishop of Lichfield, he was appointed preceptor to the prince of Wales (afterwards George IV.), and his brother, the duke of York; he was then translated to Worcester, and made clerk of the closet, a confidential post which satisfied the bishop, as he afterwards declined the primacy. He died 1808, aged eighty-eight.

Mrs. Hester Chapone, the wife of a gentleman in the law, who left her in needy circumstances, is celebrated for her 'Letters on the Improvement of the Mind,' addressed to a young lady. She died 1801, aged seventy-five.

Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, who gave to the world an edition of 'Epictetus,'

with an elegant translation, and wrote papers in 'The Rambler,' and a great deal of sweet fugitive poetry. She died aged eighty-nine, 1806.

Mrs. Elizabeth Montague, who, having had her studies directed by Dr. Conyers Middleton, displayed her unusual acquirements by the publication of an 'Essay on the Genius of Shakspeare,' which brought her into acquaintance with the *literati* of the day. She opened her house in Portman-square to the blue-stocking club, a book-society aiming at criticism, and so called because one of its members, Mr. Stillingfleet, always appeared in stockings of that hue. Towards the close of her life, she every year, on May-day, assembled the chimney-sweeps of the metropolis in Portman-square, and gave them entertainment, in consequence, it is believed, of one of her relatives, who had fallen into the hands of a master-sweep, having been tenderly treated. In memorial of this, the sooty brotherhood, in and about the metropolis, annually on the same day observe a Saturnalia, abstaining from their climbing and detergent labours a full week. *Mrs. Montague* died 1800.

Mrs. Sarah Trimmer, whose life was passed in the composition of works for the amusement and instruction of young persons. She was the mother of twelve children, and died 1810.

Mrs. Barbauld, educated classically by Mr. Aikin, her father, became esteemed as an elegant poet, and highly popular on account of her early lessons and hymns for children.

Jane Bowdler, a serious and elegant poet, of a family celebrated for its literary talents. She was author of a life of Miss Elizabeth Smith, a young lady of singular abilities, who died of decline 1806, and whose knowledge of modern oriental tongues, as well as of Hebrew and Greek, was very extensive.

Mrs. Charlotte Smith, who devoted her great talents to the support of her husband, a West-India merchant, who had dissipated his fortune. She was

extremely successful as a novelist, and her 'Romance of Real Life,' 'Old Manor House,' &c., have long had a high place amongst works of fiction.

Dr. Thomas Reid, the eminent metaphysician, who, when presented by King's college, Aberdeen, with the living of New Machar, produced his 'Inquiry into the Human Mind,' in which he makes human knowledge depend for its foundation on a system of instinctive principles, in opposition to Locke and others, who contend for a peculiar connexion between the powers and operations of the mind, and spurn the doctrine of innate ideas. *Dr. Reid* died 1796, aged eighty-five.

Beilby Porteus, bishop of London, deservedly esteemed for his excellent sermons and charges. He displayed much taste for poetry, and gained the Seatonian prize by his poem on Death. His rise in the church was mainly owing to archbishop Secker, and himself became the patron of many worthy but obscure persons. He died, aged seventy-seven, 1808.

Dr. Fothergill, a quaker, and eminent physician. His account of a prevalent ulcerated sore-throat, 1748, first brought him into notice, and he ultimately acquired a large fortune by an extensive practice in London. He died 1780.

Dr. Lettsom, a quaker and physician, born in the West Indies, who, upon succeeding to his father's property, manumitted the slaves, and then acquired a very lucrative practice in London. His 'Hints on Beneficence and Temperance,' was long a very popular book. He died 1815.

Dr. Heberden commenced practice as a physician at Cambridge, and removing thence to London, became very eminent. He first suggested the regular reports called 'Medical Transactions,' and was the author of 'Medical Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases.' He died 1801.

Dr. Black, eminent as a physician and chemist, succeeded Dr. Cullen as chemical professor at Edinburgh, 1765. To him science is indebted for

a discovery of the nature of fixed air, and of the causes of the causticity of alkaline substances. He originated the doctrine of latent heat, on which depend the causes of fluidity and evaporation; and proved bodies to be expanded by heat, whereon rests the principle of the thermometer. Dr. Black also proved that the boiling of water disposed it to freeze more readily, and that flint was held in solution in the hot springs of Iceland. The death of this great man, who was a bachelor, was sudden, 1799: a servant, on entering his sitting-room, found him a corpse, though sitting in a chair, with a cup of milk-and-water resting on his knee, and held so steadily, that not a drop of the liquid had been spilled.

Dr. Cullen, a celebrated Scottish physician, whose 'First Lines of the Practice of Physic' still retains its high value amongst medical men, and has fixed the author's fame. As a lecturer on medicine, Cullen overthrew the humoral pathology of Boerhaave, taking up the hypothesis of Hoffman, the German physician, who, in his 'Rational System of Medicine,' supports the doctrine of atony and spasm. He died 1790, aged seventy-eight.

Dr. William Hunter, the famous anatomist, removed after a Scottish education to London, and became president of the college of physicians. Thus distinguished, he acquired an ample fortune; but with a commendable ambition, he resolved to apply it to the establishment of an anatomical school in London. Building a famous amphitheatre for the delivering of lectures, a magnificent room was set apart for a museum, which was enriched not only with his own valuable preparations, but by the presents of his friends, including a cabinet of ancient medals, and a splendid library of Greek and Latin books. This valuable collection, which cost above 20,000*l.*, he left to the university of Glasgow. Dr. Hunter's anatomical works demand for him not only the approbation, but the gratitude of his fellow-countrymen: and

the fair sex more especially have cause to rejoice at his persevering labours. While dying of palsy, he exclaimed the greatest resignation, and addressed to Dr. Combe, who was by the bedside, 'Had I strength enough to hold a pen, I would write how easy and pleasant it is to die!' This event occurred 1783, at the age of sixty-five.

Dr. William Buchan, a Scottish physician, who settled in London, is well known for his 'Domestic Medicine,' the parent of many similar books. His publication met with much opposition from medical practitioners, but has still maintained its ground, and is likely so to do while people delight in being their own doctors, a practice at which the faculty need not repine. 'Let all men,' said an eminent lawyer, 'make their own wills, and there will be a plentiful legacy for the courts.' Dr. Buchan died 1805.

John Hunter, younger brother of the physician, after completing his education at Oxford, joined the late in his anatomical researches, and advanced the science of comparative anatomy in an extraordinary degree. The excessive attention he bestowed on his studies tended to shorten his valuable life, and he fell to the ground a corpse while engaged in an anxious conversation with the physicians of St. George's hospital, 1793, aged sixty-five.

Sir John Pringle commenced his career as a surgeon in the army, and was at the battle of Culloden. Entering into practice in London as a physician, he was highly successful; and the publication of his work on the 'Diseases of the Army,' eventually led to the appointment of queen's physician and a baronetcy. For his advancement of natural philosophy, he was elected president of the Royal Society. He died 1782, aged seventy-five.

Albert Von Haller, a Swiss, after visiting England, became professor of anatomy in the newly-founded uni-

versity of Gottingen, and was made a baron. His 'First Lines of Physiology' has only lately been superseded as a text-book in schools of medicine, by the discoveries of the present day. Haller's German poems display depth of thought, and richness of imagination: and that he was a truly religious man, his excellent letters to his daughter on the truths of the Christian religion, amply show. He died 1777, aged sixty-nine.

Dr. John Zimmermann, a Swiss, who became physician royal at Hanover, was some time at the court of Frederick the Great, and attended that monarch in his last illness. He was a martyr to hypochondriasis, which was augmented by the insanity of his son, and the early death of a beloved daughter. On the approach of the French towards Hanover in 1794, he almost lost his reason; and anticipating the pillage of his house, and the ruin of his fortune, he wasted to a skeleton, and died. Of his work on Solitude, it is enough to say, that the author was unable to put his own maxims in force; his melancholy continually driving him, not only out of retirement, but from one noisy city to another, as if mocking his philosophical speculations.

Augustus Von Kotzebue, a German poet, passed his life in diplomatic matters, or as manager of some great continental theatre, holding posts in Prussia, Austria, and Russia. Paul I. suspecting him of seditious practices, banished him to Siberia; but his successor, Alexander, made him his resident in Germany, with a large salary, and a commission to state to him, from time to time, his opinion of the public mind. The students of the German universities taking umbrage at his spy-like office, one of them, named Sandt, went to Mannheim, where Kotzebue lived, and stabbed him with a poniard, 1819. The play of 'The Stranger' is a translation from Kotzebue.

Constantine Volney, a French deputy, who became known by the publication of his 'Travels in Syria and

Egypt,' which were speedily translated into most European languages. His 'Ruins,' however, replete as it is with deistical and anti-monarchical notions, served to hurry on that terrible Revolution, which nearly proved fatal to himself. Upon the death of Robespierre he escaped from prison, and on the restoration of the Bourbons was made a peer of France. He died 1820.

Emanuel Kant, son of a saddler of Königsberg, in Germany, having published in 1781 'The Critique of Pure Reason,' became the founder of what has been since called The Critical Philosophy; and he lived to see his theory supplant every other metaphysical system in the German universities. Kant divides all knowledge into that which is *à priori* and that which is *à posteriori*. The former is conferred upon us by our nature, and our ideas *à priori*, he says, are produced *with* experience, but not *by* it, and exist in the mind, of which they are forms. They are distinguished from other ideas by appearing universal and necessary, and their converse is impossible. Ideas *à posteriori*, which we derive from experience, he asserts have no such characters. What we have seen, or felt, or heard, we may see, or feel, or hear again; but we do not perceive any possibility in its being otherwise. 'For instance,' he continues, 'a house is on fire in my view: I am certain of the fact: but it affords me no general or necessary knowledge. It is altogether *à posteriori*: the materials are furnished by the individual impression I have received, and that impression might have been very different. But if I take two small balls, and learn to call twice two four, I shall be immediately convinced that any two bodies whatever, when added to any two other bodies, will constantly make the sum of bodies four. Experience has indeed afforded me the opportunity of acquiring this knowledge; but it has not given it to me; for how could experience prove to me that this truth should never vary? Experience must

always be limited; and therefore cannot teach us that which is necessary and universal.' Kant then goes on to define what he calls the forms of the understanding, using the most absurd titles, such as the paralogism of pure reason, the ideal transcendental, and so forth; and we need only observe that his theory contains little in it that is new beyond classification, in which respect it is entitled to some praise. Kant died, aged eighty, 1804.

Jean Jacques Rousseau, son of a Geneva watchmaker, quitted his father's roof to shift for himself in the world, and figured in various capacities. He turned Roman Catholic to obtain bread, went as secretary with the French ambassador to Venice, taught music, and had a clerkship in the farmer-general's office in Paris. He next became known as a writer on morals and education; and in his novels, and other productions, he discusses all matters, political, ethical, and religious, with an eccentricity that proves he had no settled notions on any point. For his attacks on Christianity he was obliged to fly from France and Switzerland. David Hume then brought him to England, where he was little noticed; and quarrelling even with his patron, he again returned to the continent, where he died 1778, aged sixty-six. Rousseau, though a man of genius, was wholly devoid of principle. As a parent even, he merits our utmost reprobation: for he put his children into the Foundling, and disowned them. As a political writer, he studied to overthrow all established opinions and institutions, and was one of the coterie of authors that prepared France for her sanguinary revolution.

Jean Marмонтel, the son of a tailor, first appeared in Paris as an abbé, 1745. Through Voltaire he obtained friends amongst the court, and the place of historiographer-royal. At the revolution he retired to privacy, and was nearly ruined; but he eventually became one of the council of ancients. He was highly distinguished as a writer of tragedy, and his 'Moral Tales,' as

they are certainly improperly termed, have been much admired for their correct delineation of character; but the *Memoirs* of his own life are really valuable, as containing an accurate history of France during his time. He died 1798, aged seventy-nine.

John Lavater, a Swiss divine, noted for his many pastoral virtues, became, by his work on *Physiognomy*, founder of a sect, which assumes as an established maxim, that the powers and faculties of the mind have representative signs in the solid parts of the countenance. The science is akin to the more modern one of phrenology, though possessing less of rule, and assuredly not more of utility than the latter. He died, aged sixty, 1801.

Baron Emanuel Swedenborg, a Swede, who believed himself appointed to found a church, under the title of the New Jerusalem. He was a bishop's son, but had shown such a taste for mechanics in youth, that Charles XII. employed him at Frederickshall to transport some ships, by machinery of his own invention, over valleys and mountains, fourteen miles. His fanciful opinions, first promulgated 1743, are still held by a large body of persons of a lively imagination; and it is only necessary to say of them, that their grand principle is to explain the agency employed by the Deity in his spiritual communications with man, and *how* man will pass into a world after death with a body, and yet not a material one. He died 1772.

Jean D'Alembert, the French philosopher, had been exposed as a foundling, and brought up by a glazier's wife, under whose roof he voluntarily lived in poverty forty years. As a physical inquirer, he examined the power of fluids on the motion of bodies, solved the problem of the precession of the equinoxes, and explained the rotation of the terrestrial axis; and, as a general author, wrote with great elegance, precision, and propriety. As one of the contributors to the 'Encyclopédie,' however, in common with his coadjutors, he laboured to over-

throw every thing sacred : and as the impugner of the truths of revelation, the enemy of kings, and the sapper of the foundations of virtue, we cannot but regard d'Alembert as one of the most marked originators of a revolution which deluged his country with blood. He died 1783, aged sixty-six.

Diderot, son of a cutler, left the Jesuit's college, and an attorney's office, for literature. He was the original planner of that vast work the *Encyclopédie*, to which D'Alembert and the other scientific men of the time contributed ; but, although extraordinary talent was displayed, each wrote as imagination prompted, and all laboured to undermine the existing establishments. He died suddenly, on rising from table, 1784, aged seventy-one.

Solomon Gesner, a Swiss bookseller, who wrote many pastoral romances in the German language, in poetic prose, in the style of Macpherson's *Ossian*, of which the 'Death of Abel' is the best specimen we have in England. He died 1788, aged fifty-eight.

Honore, Count de Mirabeau, son of the Marquis de Mirabeau, is only known for his active part in the French revolution. He was a dissipated and violent man, who having been disappointed in his attempt to become a deputy to the states-general, opened a linendraper's shop in Paris, and got himself elected representative for Aix. He for some time took a leading part in the assembly of the Three Estates, and set at defiance the nobility and clergy who composed the two higher grades ; but on a sudden he privately made overtures to the court, and in a short time after died suddenly, 1791. Though buried with pomp, his remains were dragged from the Pantheon in the next year, when it was found he had been intriguing with the royalists, and burnt with every mark of opprobrium.

John Wutt, the civil engineer, was a Scotsman ; and as the partner of Mr. Boulton, of Birmingham, he effected those improvements in the steam-engine, which have immortalized his

name. With Priestley and others he made experiments in chemistry ; and the polygraph, or copy-machine, is one of the many useful mechanical inventions of this talented man. He died 1819.

Dr. Franklin, the American philosopher, commenced life as a printer ; and after working in London as a journeyman, returned to Philadelphia, and set up business for himself. His electrical discoveries (before alluded to) were made in 1752. From this period his rise was rapid ; from being clerk of the assembly of Pennsylvania, he was sent as envoy to England, where Oxford gave him the degree of LL.D. : and he returned laden with honorary marks of respect. In 1775 he was elected a member of congress, and took an active part in separating the States from the mother country, crossing to France, and entering into a treaty with that power against England. He was made governor of Pennsylvania on his last return, 1785, and died, aged eighty-four, 1790.

Sir William Herschel, the astronomer, was son of a musician at Hanover, and left the band of the foot-guards to come to England. Here he obtained notice by forming military bands, and conducting concerts, and at length became organist of the Octagon chapel, Bath. Being partial to astronomy, he constructed in 1774, unassisted, a reflecting telescope of five feet, and soon after a twenty feet reflector. From this period he gradually gave up the music of earth for that of the spheres, and was fortunate enough to discover, by the aid of his own glasses, 1781, a new primary planet, which he named the *Georgium Sidus*, in honour of the king. He ultimately settled at Slough, near Windsor, with a handsome pension, and commenced the erection of a telescope of forty feet. With this powerful instrument, he discovered three volcanoes in the moon in the act of emitting fire, and he produced a catalogue of 5000 new nebulous stars, &c., which he had found out ; on which Oxford made him a doctor of

law, and the principle of life. He died 1743, aged eighty-four.

Galvani, the discoverer of animal electricity, turned his mind from the study of medicine, and became a professor of Zoology. Always intent upon extending the new science of animal electricity, he accidentally discovered that while the discovery which has immortalised his name. Some frogs had been ordered to compose a restorative soup for his wife's use, and he happened on the same table with an electric machine, the leg of a frog, lying near from the conductor, was undisturbed, touched by a youth with a scalpel. The motions of the limb were observed to be agitated hereupon with convulsions; and Galvani, upon repeating the experiment, satisfied himself that the convulsion occurred only when a spark was drawn from the conductor, while the scalpel touched the nerves. Subsequent inquiries enabled the philosopher to assert, that a peculiar fluid or principle, supposed to be secreted by the brain, is distributed by the nerves throughout the bodies of animals, and must be considered as the cause of muscular motion. The experimentalists of all countries were enabled to ascertain the hypothesis of Galvani to be correct; and animal electricity, or Galvanism, is considered to depend on the operation of the same causes that produce other electrical phenomena. Galvani refused to take the oath of allegiance to his French masters when the Cisalpine republic was established, and was deprived of his professorship, but it was afterwards restored to him; and he died 1798.

Antoine Lavoisier, the French chemist, possessed an ample fortune, and devoted himself to science. Upon Priestley's discovery of dephlogisticated air, or oxygen gas, Lavoisier published his 'Elements of Chemistry,' wherein he showed its influence in the production of acids, and further illustrated his theory by the composition of water. To effect the latter he burned together the oxygen and hydrogen gases; and the system was completed by his theo-

ries of combustion and oxidation, decomposition of atmospheric air, his doctrine of caloric, and his theory of causing the solid, liquid, and gaseous states of bodies. *Meuvius*, his younger was a liberal patron, and dined at his house twice in the week. So serious a citizen could not but be deterred by the sanguinary Robespierre, and as one of the rich farmers-general he suffered by the guillotine 1793. His widow, a very accomplished woman, married the eccentric count Rumford.

Leonard Euler, born at Basle, was patronised by Catherine of Russia, who made him adjunct of the mathematical class in her own academy of sciences. His publications on the propagation of sound, on curves, and the integral calculus, first distinguished him; and when his fellow academicians asked four months to complete an important calculation, he finished it in three days, not, however, without a consequent fever which deprived of the sight of one eye. The demonstrations of the planets and comets, magnetism, light and colours, the resistance of fluids, the equilibrium in motion of floating bodies, the construction and navigation of ships, infirmities, were all in turn subjects of his deep consideration; and his theory of each has met with deserved attention. Such was the memory of Euler, that he once repeated the *Æneid*, without the omission of a single sentence. He had the enviable faculty of going instantly from the most abstruse studies to the general amusements of society and of enjoying them with a vigour more common to less talented men. He was on all occasions the earnest and sensible champion of the great truths of religion, and died 1783, aged 76.

George Count de Buffon, the French naturalist, upon coming into a large fortune on the death of his mother, devoted himself to literature. His 'Histoire Naturelle,' in 35 vols. quarto, divides the animal world without judgment into six classes; and the most accurately arranged 'Animal Kingdom' of Cuvier has naturally superseded it,

laborious and creditable to his research as it was. He died 1788, aged eighty-one.

Abraham Werner, a German, whose father was overseer of the iron-mines of Upper Lusatia, has established his reputation by forming a system of mineralogy, classifying the various products of the earth, and pointing out their characteristic analogies. He died 1817, aged sixty-seven.

Dr. Charles Hutton, son of a viewer of mines at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, became a mathematical master of the grammar-school there, and had lord chancellor Eldon and his brother as pupils. But his fame was chiefly established by a tract on the principles of bridges; and on standing for the mathematical professorship at Woolwich, he bore away the prize from ten competitors, and during thirty-four years held his useful office. His works are, 'On the force of exploded gunpowder,' 'On the velocity of balls exploded from artillery,' mathematical tables, and a course of mathematics, which has become a text-book in our schools. He died 1823, aged eighty-five.

Joseph Lagrange was born at Turin, and at the early age of sixteen was made professor of the artillery school there. Joining his pupils, who were mostly older than himself, he originated the academy of Turin; and in the first volume of its transactions, made himself known by his application of the theory of recurring consequences and the doctrine of chances to the differential calculus. Euler was so astonished at his calculations of the motions of fluids, and his remarks on vibration, that he caused him to be chosen a member of the Berlin academy, and he ultimately became its director in physics. On the death of Frederick the Great, Lagrange became a member of the academy of sciences at Paris: and although the revolution alarmed him, he was, on the settlement of the institutions, made professor of the polytechnic school, and loaded with honours by Buonaparte. He died 1813, aged seventy-six.

Pierre, Marquis Laplace, one of the most distinguished philosophers since Newton's time, was appointed examiner of artillery at Paris, 1784. After the revolution of the 18th Brumaire, 1799, he was made minister of the interior, but was removed in six weeks to make room for Lucien Buonaparte. He became president of the senate 1803, and in the following year made a report to that body of the necessity of abandoning the republican calendar, and restoring the Gregorian. On the removal of Napoleon to Elba, Laplace, who had voted for his deposition, was made a marquis by Louis XVIII.; and after displaying stanch tory principles on several occasions, and rendering his residence at Arcueil the centre of attraction to all the mathematical philosophers of Europe, he died, aged 78, 1827. The labours of Laplace, as registered in his works, give him an undying name. To him alone is due the glory of having perfected the work of Newton; and as that great philosopher projected the principle of gravitation, without fully seeing to what it was competent, Laplace proved at once the universality of its power. The law of gravitation is that which regulates all things in the universe, repairs or prevents the disturbances which time may occasion amongst the planetary orbs, and is competent to the preservation of variety and order, so long as its Almighty Originator shall choose it to operate. 'We cannot affirm of Laplace,' says professor Powell in his masterly but too concise view of the sciences, 'that he created a science entirely new, like Galileo or Archimedes; nor that he struck out original ideas, adding an entire calculus to mathematical methods, like Descartes, Newton, or Leibnitz. Nor again, that he was the first to transport himself into the heavens, like Newton, and carry the terrestrial dynamics of Galileo into the farthest regions of the planetary world; but he collected, combined, and arranged, all that had been previously known on the subjects, under the most grand and comprehensive ge-

realisations: he traced out all the remotest consequences of the great principles already laid down, and brought under the dominion of analysis an immense range of physical truths, which did not appear at all likely to be subjected to any such system. Such, however, was the powerful command with which he wielded at pleasure the irresistible weapons of the calculus, that he at one stroke subjugated the most apparently insuperable difficulties. We owe to him besides, almost the entire development of that highly curious and important subject, the calculation of probabilities; a doctrine which applies to that vast range of the objects of our knowledge, which are placed beyond the pale of absolute certainty. To supply fixed principles on which the probability of events may be estimated, and even expressed, by mathematical formulae, is of all other inventions one of the most happy and important; it tends to put us in possession of the most sound principles on which to discriminate truth from error; and embraces as well the chances of future contingencies, as the probabilities of error in the present and the past, from the fallibility of observation and testimony; and has been well designated by an able writer, "a fortunate supplement to the imperfection of our nature." The idea was first started by Pascal; it was successively improved upon by Bernouilli, Euler, and Lagrange; but owes its full development entirely to Laplace. The *Mécanique Céleste*, extending to 5 vols. quarto, is the most important work of Laplace, containing all the recent discoveries in physical astronomy, united into a connected system with the fundamental truths established by Newton, and demonstrated by a uniform method of analysis. His theory of probabilities is contained in two separate works on the subject.

The full establishment of the law of gravitation wholly puts aside, amongst other systems, the Atomic theory of Epicurus, which allows nothing but matter and space. Whatever matter

was, that space was the reverse. Matter, in its elementary state, consisted of inconceivably minute solid atoms, so solid, that they could not possibly be broken by any violent whatever. The express figure of the atoms was various, and each of them was possessed of certain intrinsic powers of motion, either of a descending, a rebounding, or a curvilinear. These infinite groups of atoms, passing through all time and space, in different directions, and under different powers, were made to adhere together by pointed or jagged constructions; not only to form the earth, but all animals, vegetables, and minerals that were constantly losing particles of the substance, which went to form new combinations, until at length nature that had been would, in any such form, exist. Chance brought them together, and chance would, in the same manner, set them free. A great First Cause, and a principle competent to repair waste and secure order, were left out of the question; and the whole frame of nature might be suddenly dissolved, and reduced to its original atoms, by the accidental displacing, or the undue escape, of a single one. It is the glory of physical science in our day to prove a God beyond conception glorious and powerful, by his works; and Laplace, whose claim to the title of philosopher none would dispute, humbly observed, when dying, that what we knew of those works was little indeed, as what we are ignorant of, immense.

Benjamin Thompson, Count Rumford, an American, who, for his services in the war with the colonies, was knighted by George III.; and made count by the duke of Bavaria, for suppressing mendicancy throughout his state. The count was the inventor of a stove to economise fuel, and prevent a too rapid escape of the heat. He married the widow of Lavoisier, and died at France 1814.

Sir Joshua Reynolds, son of a Devon

shire divine, rapidly acquired fame and opulence as a painter, and was elected president of the recently-founded royal academy, and knighted. As one of Johnson's club, he became known to and respected by learned men of every description. As an historical artist, he is best known by his deaths of cardinal Beaufort and Ugolino; but it is as a portrait-painter that his name will go down to posterity. In this style he is the founder of a new school, wherein grace and dignity are made to supplant stiffness, and an attention to trifles, in feature and drapery. His colours have been said to fade through his defective acquaintance with their mechanism; and he is considered never to have excelled in his delineation of the naked figure. As a writer, he will be long remembered for his agreeable and elegant discourses on the principles and practice of painting. He died 1792, aged sixty-nine.

Thomas Gainsborough, born at Sudbury, Suffolk, settled in London, and without any other master than nature, supported the character of almost unrivalled excellence as a delineator of landscape. His pieces unite the brilliancy of Claude with the simplicity of the Flemish school. He died 1788, aged sixty-one.

James Barry, son of an Irish ship-master, was patronized by Burke, and enabled to visit Italy. His six pictures painted for the Society of Arts are admirable specimens of his talent. He died 1806.

Benjamin West was born in America, of a quaker family; and after visiting Italy, settled in England 1763. Patronized by the king, he soon rose to eminence; and his Departure of Regulus from Rome, Death of Wolfe, Christ healing the Sick, Christ Rejected, and Death on the Pale Horse, are alike remarkable for their spirited representation of character, multiplicity of figures, and glowing colours. At Windsor are many of his pictures from scenes of our early history, expressly painted

for George III. He died 1820, aged eighty-two.

Angelica Kauffman, daughter of a Swiss painter, came to England after studying in the Italian school, and rose to eminence as an historical artist. The best of her pieces are in the collection of the late Mr. Humphrey Bowles, of Wanstead. She died 1807 at Rome, aged sixty-seven.

John Opie, the son of a Cornish carpenter, was first brought into notice as a painter by Dr. Wolcot the poet. His pencil was very creditably employed on the pictures exhibited in the Boydell and Macklin galleries. He died 1807, aged forty-six.

Henry Fuseli, of Zurich, declined holy orders, to devote himself to the study of Michael Angelo. He was the intimate friend of Lavater, and on coming to England was patronized by Reynolds. His forty-seven pictures from Milton and ten from Shakspeare are all remarkable for an exaggeration of character, suitable alone to subjects of the terrific class. Lavater had given him a monition which he assured him, if attended to, would make his fortune: it was, 'Do the third part of what you can do.' He died 1817, aged seventy-eight, at the countess of Guildford's at Putney Hill.

George Romney, the son of a carpenter in Lancashire, came to London, after a very little instruction in painting, and rapidly rose to eminence as a delineator of portraits. In a single year he made nearly 4000*l*. He added some historical productions to the Boydell gallery of Shakspeare; and in the outline of his figures, and the disposition of the drapery, he was singularly classical. He was accurate in colouring, but defective in blending his shades. He died 1802.

George Morland, son of a London painter, having fallen into dissipated habits, forsook the study of the woods and fields for the society of the ale-house; and employed his pencil upon the subjects that most interested him there. He has given, with the true stamp of genius, living pictures of

drovers drinking, and of stage-coachmen starting and coming in; and his farm-yard and stable-pieces, wherein he introduces cattle of all descriptions, dogs, and poultry, have been surpassed by no other English artist. He died a victim to intemperance, aged forty, 1804.

John Singleton Copley, born of British parents in America, came to England 1767, on the strength of his fame, which was derived from a painting of a boy and squirrel. Though coldly received by West and others, he made his way to celebrity as an historical artist; and his deaths of Chatham and Major Pierson are considered to be his best works. His son has, in our own day, filled the high office of lord-chancellor. Copley died, aged seventy-eight, 1815.

Richard Wilson, one of the first of English landscape-painters, was son of a Welsh clergyman. He was a neglected man, and was compelled in his old age to solicit the librarianship of the Royal Academy, of which he had been one of the greatest ornaments. He has been termed the English Claude; and if he did not possess the sublime imagination of the Italian, whatever came from his easel bore the stamp of elegance and truth. He died 1782.

Sawrey Gilpin, born at Carlisle, was apprenticed at fourteen to a ship-painter in London, where he displayed his genius by vigorous sketches of the scenes daily passing before his master's shop-window. Carts, horses, market groups, were his favourite subjects; and at length he turned his attention to the structure of the horse, and delineated that noble animal with extraordinary spirit and accuracy. As an historical painter, his *Triumph of Camillus*, *Election of Darius*, *Fall of Phaeton*, and *Horses of Diomedes*, prove his genius: and a group of tigers is thought to be his *chef-d'œuvre*. His brother, William Gilpin, a divine, appears, by his remarks on forest scenery and on the picturesque, to have been of a kindred spirit, and to have

thought as he painted. Sawrey died 1807, and William 1804.

Sir William Chambers became architect to George III., for whom he laid out the royal gardens at Kew. Somerset-house in the Strand, and Milton-abbey, Dorset, were built by him; and in the construction of stair-cases he was singularly excellent. His treatise on 'Civil Architecture' still maintains its ground as the most popular work on the science. He died 1796, aged sixty-nine.

John Flaxman, the sculptor, during a residence at Rome, executed some fine pieces from Ovid, Homer, and Dante; and returning to England, was henceforward engaged on works of the highest national importance. His monuments of the countess Spencer and the poet Collins have been especially admired. He died 1826.

John Bacon, while apprentice in a porcelain manufactory in Lambeth, conceived the idea of constructing models in artificial compost, and at twenty-three began working upon marble, and invented the machine now in general use for getting out the points of the model upon the stone. His chief works are the monuments of lord Chatham in Westminster-abbey and Guildhall, and the statues of Howard, Blackstone, and Johnson. George III. having on one occasion asked him if he had visited foreign collections, he replied in the negative: 'I am glad of it,' said the king, 'you will do England the greater credit.' He died 1799.

Francis Bartolozzi, of Florence, came to England with Mr. Dalton (librarian to George III.), who gave him 300*l.* a year to work on his account as an engraver. He soon rose to eminence as the improver of the recently invented red dotted or chalk manner of engraving, which, for a time, put aside the more legitimate style of the line. He accepted an offer from the regent of Portugal to settle at Lisbon, when an aged man; and died there, aged eighty-seven, 1815.

Antonio Canova, the most cele-

brated sculptor of modern times, was a Venetian of humble origin, and was brought into notice by signor Faleri, who had seen the figure of a lion, formed by the youthful aspirant in butter. Under Toretti of Vienna, and other eminent masters, he gradually rose to fame and fortune, and was treated with the highest respect by Napoleon, George IV., and the Pope; the latter of whom created him marquis of Ischia, inscribed his name in the book of the capitol, and gave him a handsome pension. The chief amongst the very numerous works of Canova, are Venus and Adonis, his chef-d'œuvre; a miniature statue of Mary Magdalen; Cupid and Psyche, at Mulmaison; Hercules and Lycas, at Rome; Psyche, executed at a very early age, and by many thought to be his best work; and the statue of Napoleon holding the sceptre, the property of the duke of Wellington by the fortune of war. This great artist died, aged sixty-four, 1822.

Lancelot Brown, celebrated for introducing landscape gardening, first came into notice by laying out the grounds of lord Cobham. He was styled *capability* Brown, from his frequent use of that word in reference to the sites submitted to his arrangement. His object was to supplant the formal pleasure-grounds of the old school, with the scenery of nature: he delighted in winding walks, running streams, and a succession of hill and dale, with a tasteful alternation of well-wooded porticoes, and sudden breaks into open and extensive prospects. His art was afterwards brought to still greater perfection by Mr. Humphrey Repton, a private gentleman, who published many works on the science of cultivating pleasure estates, all of which are now considered stock books. Brown died 1773.

Francis Haydn, born in Austria of poor parents, was first brought forward by Porpora, the celebrated composer of recitative, who obtained the high title of patriarch of harmony.

He became celebrated in Germany, France, and England; but it was not until the age of sixty that he wrote his chef-d'œuvre, the oratorio of the 'Creation.' He died 1809, aged seventy-eight.

Dr. Thomas Arne, who gave up the study of the law for that of music. His great work is the opera of 'Ar-taxerxes,' a paraphrase from Metastasio. Miss Brent, the original Mandane, was his pupil; and into this part he contrived to introduce all the peculiarities of the Italian school. That character is now considered the touchstone of the pretensions of female singers aspiring to the first rank in English opera. Arne is admired for that grace, ease, and variety, so remarkable in the modern productions of Italy. He died 1778.

John Mozart, the musical reformer, was son of a German musician; and at six, played a concerto of Wagenseil before the emperor, the author himself turning over the leaves. At nine, on coming to England, he took part with Christian Bach in various concerts before the royal family. When at Rome, he wrote down from ear the whole of the celebrated Miserere, of which a copy was not allowed to be made; and on being solicited when at Bologna to write an anthem for four voices, he produced one in half an hour. ~~He resided some time at Paris,~~ but Munich and Vienna were his chief places of abode. His death, which occurred at the age of thirty-five, 1792, was hastened by his anxiety to complete his 'Requiem.' The fame of Mozart rests upon his four operas, Figaro, Idomeno, La Clemenza di Tito, and Giovanni, the last of which may be considered his masterpiece. He is not so much an original composer, as he is a grand perfecter of the various styles, which he has generalised and made his own, by flights and attempts at singularity the most daring.

Lewis Beethoven, who left Cologne to settle at Vienna. His oratorio of the 'Mount of Olives,' overture to

'Prometheus,' and pianoforte concerto in C minor, are considered to display best his originality of invention, energy of manner, and power of modulation. He died, aged fifty-six, 1826.

Giovanni Paisiello, born at Tarento, in Italy, gradually rose to eminence both as a singer and composer; and no name was more celebrated than his, up to the period of the French revolution, for the graces and freshness of melody, or for simplicity, correctness, and elegance. His operas are more than seventy in number. Napoleon patronized him; and nine years of his life he passed at the court of Catherine II. of Russia. He died 1816, aged seventy-five.

Nicolo Jomelli, born at Aversa, in Naples, became popular on account of his opera 'L'Errare Amorosa,' after which he carried away the palm in most of the Italian cities. Disappointed, however, at the ill-success of his 'Ifigenia,' in 1773, he was seized with paralysis; and the only thing of moment he afterwards composed was his 'Miserere' for two voices, considered by his countrymen his chef-d'œuvre. His devotional pieces are regarded beyond all others in the Romish churches. He died 1774, aged sixty.

Dr. Charles Burney, the historian of music, early devoted himself to composition. His fame, however, rests on his *History of Music*, and 'A Musical Tour through France and Italy.' He had eight children, many of whom have been very distinguished in various ways: his second son became an eminent critic and school-master; his eldest accompanied Cook in his passage round the world; and his daughter, Madame d'Arblay, was the admired author of 'Evelina,' 'Cecilia,' and other novels, which had the merit of sweeping away much of the trash of the circulating libraries. He died 1814, aged eighty-eight.

James Kent, famous for the simplicity and harmony of his sacred compositions. He was organist of Trinity college, Cambridge; and few pieces of cathe-

dral music are more generally popular than his anthems. His 'Hear my Prayer' is considered his best production. He died 1760.

David Garrick, the most famous of English actors, after an education at Lichfield school, accompanied his last tutor, the celebrated Johnson, to London, and on the death of his uncle, a merchant, devoted himself to the stage. He first appeared at Ipswich; and gaining applause there, he came to Goodman's-fields, London, and acted Richard III. with extraordinary success. The patent theatres succeeded in crushing the rival house; and Garrick soon made an engagement to perform at Drury Lane for 500*l.* a year. Thus popular in England, he visited Dublin; and the crowds he occasioned there produced a contagious disorder, thence denominated 'the Garrick fever.' As joint patentee of Drury Lane, he in 1769 projected and conducted a jubilee at Stratford, in honour of Shakspeare, which, although ridiculed by the wits of the day, should be mentioned with commendation, as the homage of the first of his profession to an immortal genius. This great actor died, aged seventy-three, 1779, while on a visit to lord Spencer's. Garrick has never been surpassed on the stage for nature, variety, and facility of expression: in tragedy and in comedy he was accurately true to his character. His literary talents were respectable, and he has left numerous theatrical pieces to prove it. His wife, a native of Vienna, had been an Italian stage-dancer, highly patronized by lord and lady Burlington, who gave her 6000*l.* as a marriage portion. She long survived her husband; and after refusing the hand of various titled persons, died a widow, at the great age of ninety-seven, 1822.

Carlo Broschi Farinelli, considered the first male singer on record, was a Neapolitan, and having studied under Porpora, the patriarch of harmony, he came to London 1737, where Dr. Burney, in sober judgment, said of

him, 'that the musical powers of Farinelli had scarcely ever met before in any human being.' Visiting Spain, the court detained him to assist in alleviating the melancholy of king Philip V.; and while at Madrid, he became so universally a favourite, that offices of high emolument were obtainable at his solicitation. Various anecdotes of his greatness of mind and prudence under such circumstances are related, as also of his freedom from jealousy of kindred talent. Under Ferdinand VI. he enjoyed the same favours, and on that prince's death retired to Bologna, where he built a splendid mansion, and passed his last years in cultivated leisure. He died 1782, aged seventy-seven.

John Philip Kemble, the most accomplished English tragedian since Garrick, was educated amongst Roman Catholics in France; and after going the round of the provincial stages in England, appeared on the Drury Lane boards, 1783, as Hamlet. From 1788 to 1801 he was the leader in tragedy at this theatre, having at length a share in the management; but in 1803 he transferred his interest to Covent Garden, and became its sole manager. That house was destroyed by fire; and the price of admission being raised on the opening of the new one (erected in one year, 1809), the O. P. (*Old Price*) riot commenced, which terminated in some respects in favour of the public. This celebrated contest was of a peculiarly *civil* nature. Visitors to the theatre paid their money at the doors, and having entered the house, commenced themselves a series of performances, which rendered the efforts of the scenic actors nugatory. The entertainments consisted for a while of dances on the pit-benches, and sometimes on the cushions of the boxes, to the harsh sounds of catcalls; even regular music was sometimes written for the occasion, and sung by the crowd; and O. P. dances and songs were to be seen in the window of every music-shop. At last, when benches began to be torn

up, box-covers and cushions to be demolished, and the decorations of the theatre to be destroyed, the magistracy interfered. Mr. Kemble took his leave of the stage 1817, and retired to Lausanne, where he died, aged sixty-six, 1823. The learning, manners, and uprightness of this actor gave a dignity to his profession; and in his representations of the Roman character, he was perhaps superior to Garrick, having a general carriage especially suited to our notions of the stately heroes of the capitol. His sister, Mrs. Siddons, was perhaps the greatest tragic actress this country has produced: her lady Macbeth, Katherine, Constance, and Mrs. Beverly, were alike admirable for their truth to nature. Her dignity, her energetic yet chastened action in scenes of high excitement, and the amazing power she possessed over her voice, impelled as it was in an instant, without apparent effort, from a tone of eminent sweetness and despondency to that of majestic authority, or shaped to suit the fiercest denunciations of vengeance,—added to her power of expressing the feelings of the anxious parent, the injured wife, or the proud and desolated queen,—have identified her with the characters she personated; and those who remember her, think not of Katherine, or of Constance, or Mrs. Beverly, or of lady Macbeth, but as combined with the form and demeanour of the illustrious Siddons.

Edmund Kean, son of a London tailor, went to sea as a cabin-boy. Returning penniless, and finding his father dead, he joined a company of strolling players; and happening to perform once in the presence of Dr. Drury (a name singularly propitious to the aspiring son of Thespis) of Eton, that gentleman is said to have taken him into the school, and kept him there three years, until he could read Cicero's orations. He returned, however, to his vagrant life; and the same patron having, some years after, witnessed his performance of Richard III. at Exeter, wrote to one of the com-

mittee of Drury Lane, to request the trial of him on the London boards. Upon the actor's arrival in town, the committee, it seems, thought him likely to prove any thing but a prop to the falling fortunes of their house: small in stature, with a slight deformity of back, and limbs possessing nothing approaching to symmetry, together with a voice which, when employed in ordinary converse, had a vulgar coarseness, they tried to evade the agreement which had been precipitately entered into by Arnold with Dr. Drury. Kean, however, nothing daunted, proposed to come out in Shylock, with a view to avoid, it is supposed, the ridicule which the committee expected would be vented upon his figure; and on the evening of January 14, 1814, he made his *début* before one of the thinnest houses on record. The papers of the next day spoke more than favourably of the attempt, one even asserting 'that a second Garrick had come forth, in whom was an animating soul, distinguishable in all he said and did.' The committee then allowed him to appear as Richard III.; and Kean's success was complete. The whole town was electrified with his performance, the hitherto deserted Drury was crowded night after night to suffocation, and the committee knew not how best to display, on the one hand, their sorrow for their disparagement of the man, and on the other, their joy at the certainty of his ability to fill their coffers. From this happy moment, until his decease in his forty-sixth year, 1833, no one comparable to Kean appeared, on either of the London stages, in the two characters mentioned, or in Othello, Iago, and that whole range of personification, wherein the dark cunning of the human heart, with its reckless disregard of all but expediency, is required to be displayed. For the Roman characters of Kemble he was obviously unfit; but he had the versatility of Garrick, and often appeared to great advantage in the same evening both in tragedy and farce. In fact, he had played harlequin

when a rover; and could assume any part, in case of emergency, without an actual failure, so varied were his powers.

Samuel Foote, son of a member of parliament, quitted the Temple for the stage, after having dissipated his fortune, and struck out a new species of theatrical entertainment, to avoid collision with the patent houses. It consisted of some humorous imitations of well-known characters, in detached scenes, written by Foote, who always took the leading part himself. These exhibitions he used to call 'Diversions of the Morning,' 'Giving Tea to his Friends,' and so forth. At length he became patentee of the Haymarket-theatre, where his unwarrantable ridicule of public characters received various checks. His 'Mayor of Garrick' almost alone keeps its place on the stage. Foote was a coarse wit; and highly reprehensible for his proneness to expose to the public, for gain, the involuntary defects of his fellow-creatures.

Edward Shuter, highly celebrated as a low comedian, in such characters as Falstaff, &c., was an improvident man, and constantly pursued by bailiffs. It is singular that, notwithstanding his profession, he was a devoted follower of Whitfield, for whose Tabernacle he made large subscriptions. He had an inexhaustible fund of dry wit; and though ridiculed by Churchill and others, returned all ill-natured remarks with some complacent observation. He died 1776.

Mrs. Billington, the most celebrated female singer of her day, was daughter of a German, and wife of a music-master. No opera or concert of reputation was considered complete without her. She travelled to Italy, and had equal honours paid her at Milan and Rome; and returning to England in 1801, she appeared alternately at the two great theatres, astonishing the whole musical world by her performance of *Mandane*. She died 1817.

Mrs. Jordan, an actress, famous for her delineation of a peculiarly difficult

species of character, such as Peggy, in 'The Country Girl,' Phœbe, in 'As You Like It, &c.' Her connexion with an illustrious personage led to a temporary retirement from the stage; and upon the termination of her theatrical career, she went to reside in France, where she died in obscurity 1816.

Charles Mathews, a comedian of varied talents, who was at length enabled to amuse a whole audience by his own unaided exertions, in a series of entertainments under such titles as 'Mr. Mathews at Home,' 'My Youthful Days,' and so forth. The great merit of Mathews consisted in his able attacks upon the reigning follies of the day; not, like Foote, wounding by his ridicule of unavoidable physical infirmities. He even saw his error in once attempting to imitate the mere manner of Lord Ellenborough when on the bench, and abstained in future from what he thought likely to be misinterpreted by the vulgar. Seated before a small table, covered

with green cloth to the floor, with two lamps thereon, this master of his art, by aid of a few articles of apparel for disguise, would assume a dozen characters, changing look, manner, voice, and every other delineation, as rapidly as he put on the dress. Persons who had not seen him, could seldom understand how one person amused an audience for three hours together, when a whole company so often fail to effect that object. He died 1835, aged fifty-nine.

Joseph Grimaldi, perhaps the only clown who deserves a place in history, gave a degree of dignity to pantomimic exhibitions, by his chaste and talented style of acting. Although irresistibly humorous, his efforts were always free from buffoonery and indecency. He was of Italian origin, and much given to melancholy; and when he quitted the stage, 1825, he took with him all that was valuable in the representations he had so long upheld. He died aged fifty-eight, 1837.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, INSTITUTIONS, AND USAGES.

Umbrellas, 1760, were first used by the philanthropic Jonas Hanway in the streets of London. Mr. Hanway was one of the first projectors of the Magdalen charity, and of the Marine Society for fitting out indigent, and even depraved, boys for the naval service.

The First English Canal cut, 1760, under the direction of the duke of Bridgewater, who has been styled the parent of canal navigation. Brindley was the engineer; and the work extended from Worsley to Manchester, seven miles.

Porcelain, 1763, in close imitation of the original *china*, was invented by Mr. Wedgwood, a potter of Newcastle-under-Lyne in Staffordshire, where he built a village named Etruria, and amassed a large fortune. By his talents, England, from being the importer, became the exporter of the finer kinds of earthenware.

The Longitude corrected, 1764, by

Harrison's time-keeper. The inventor was a poor carpenter's son, and had an almost intuitive knowledge of mechanics. Upon proof being given that, in two voyages, his chronometer had corrected the longitude within the limits required by an act of queen Anne, the parliament gave him the promised reward of 20,000*l*. His machine erred only from three to four seconds in a week. To find the longitude at sea, is a problem to which the attention of navigators and mathematicians has been directed ever since navigation began to be improved. Since Mr. Harrison's time, instruments have been constructed which determine the point still more closely, and perhaps with as great a degree of accuracy as is attainable.

The Steam Engine, 1764, improved by Watt. From that period to the present day, the principles of machinery and power of steam have wholly engrossed the attention of physical

scholars, insomuch that there is now scarcely a branch of art or manufacture, which is not directed by the steam-engine in place of human labour. As a comparatively perfect knowledge has been gained of the amount of mechanical virtue (if it may be so termed), which exists in coal, much less of that valuable material is consumed in the production of steam than formerly; and such is the nicety with which machinery is adapted to its purpose, that the feeble hand of man has been armed with a power to which no limits can be assigned. The steam-engine has infinitely added to the means of human comfort and enjoyment, and rendered cheap and accessible to all, the materials of wealth and prosperity. It has become a thing alike stupendous for its force and its flexibility: the trunk of an elephant, that can pick up a pin, and rend an oak, is nothing in comparison of it: it can engrave a seal, and crush masses of obdurate metals like wax before it: it can draw out, without breaking, a thread as fine as gossamer, and lift up a ship of war like a bauble into the air: it can embroider muslin and forge anchors: it can cut steel into ribands, and impel loaded vessels against the fury of the winds and waves. At least 12,000 machines are now in use in Great Britain, by which the labour of 250,000 horses is saved. Supposing each horse to consume annually the produce of two acres, 500,000 acres are thus set free for other purposes. Dr. Lardner shows that the steam from one pound of coal has a power of raising 667 tons weight of any material to the height of one foot; and that therefore an ounce of coal would raise forty-two tons one foot high, or eighteen pounds a mile in height. Since a force of eighteen pounds is capable of drawing two tons upon a railway, it follows that an ounce of coal can draw two tons a mile, or one ton two miles, upon a level railway. The circumference of the earth measures 25,000 miles. If it were begirt by an iron railway, a load of one ton

would be drawn round it in six weeks, by the mechanical power that resides in the third part of a ton of coal! But listen to what the same philosopher further says. 'The state of physical science at the present moment justifies the expectation that we are on the eve of mechanical discoveries more important than any which have yet appeared. Philosophy already directs her finger at sources of inexhaustible power, in the phenomena of electricity and magnetism. The steam-engine itself, with the gigantic powers conferred upon it by the immortal Watt, will dwindle into insignificance, in comparison of the hidden powers of nature still to be revealed; and the day will probably come, when that machine, which is now extending the blessings of civilization to the most remote skirts of the globe, will cease to exist, except in the page of history.'

Blackfriars Bridge completed, 1770.

It was named at its foundation Pitt's Bridge, in honour of the earl of Chatham, and commenced in 1760. The cost was 160,000*l.* which was defrayed by a toll that lasted several years. The bridge has nine elliptical arches, and the span of the centre one is 100 feet.

The Humane Society was founded 1774 by Dr. Hawes, a physician, who satirized with great ability the indiscreet 'Primitive Physic' of John Wesley. The society is for the recovery of apparently drowned persons, and the benevolent doctor paid the rewards out of his own pocket, until Dr. Cogan and others aided him in extending the institution to the public.

The Diving-bell improved, 1780.

Dr. Halley had constructed a machine, which was an improvement on former ones, for a descent below the surface of the sea; but Mr. Spalding, a Scotsman, brought one to great perfection in 1780. Low water-mark is no longer a limit to the operations of the engineer; the spirit-level of the plumb-line, and the nicely-fitted joints of the stonemason, are now quite as much attended to at a reasonable depth in the water, as in the mightiest works on

the land; and foundations are laid with precision on the far-sunk submarine precipice. 'On touching the surface,' says Mr. Babbage in his account of his recent descent, 'and thus cutting off the communication with the external air, a peculiar sensation is perceived in the ears; it is not, however, painful. The attention is soon directed to another object. The air, rushing in through the valves at the top of the bell, overflows, and escapes with a considerable bubbling noise under the sides. The motion of the bell proceeds slowly and almost imperceptibly. A pain now begins to be felt in the ears, arising from the increased external pressure; this may sometimes be removed by the act of yawning, or by closing the nostrils and mouth, and attempting to force air through the ears. If the water is not much disturbed, the light in the bell is very considerable; and even at the depth of twenty feet, was more than is usual in many sitting-rooms. Within the distance of eight or ten feet, the stones at the bottom begin to be visible. The pain in the ears continues at intervals, until the descent of the bell terminates by resting on the ground. Signals are communicated by the workmen in the bell to those above by striking against the sides of the bell with a hammer, and the sound is heard very distinctly by those above.'

Balloons invented, 1782, by Montgolfier. He was a papermaker at Annonay, in France, and his plan consisted in the inflation of a large paper bag, by kindling under the mouth of it a fire, which rarefied the air contained in it; and being thus rendered specifically lighter than an equal bulk of atmospheric air at the usual temperature, it rose to a considerable height. It having been ascertained that a balloon, with a car attached to it, could thus be kept suspended by a supply of heated air, the experiment was repeated on a large scale at Versailles, when the marquis d'Arlandes ascended in the presence of the royal family, and a vast concourse of spectators. An

important improvement was afterwards made in the practice of aeronautics, by substituting for heated air hydrogen gas, which is probably the lightest aerial fluid in nature. The following account of an English aerial voyage in 1829 is from a correspondent of the 'Mirror': 'I ascended with Mr. Green from Rotherhithe, amidst the acclamations of the multitude, whose forms and voices soon passed away. The serenity of the evening threw a degree of solemnity over the scene, which had the effect of enchantment. We never lost sight of the earth, for our voyage was perfectly cloudless. The fields and buildings were all in miniature proportion, though most exquisitely depicted; and as Greenwich Hospital, the Tower of London, and St. Paul's receded from our view, the country succeeded, resembling one continued garden. The fields of grain were beautifully defined, and the clearness of the atmosphere threw a varnish over the whole face of nature. We had the Thames in view the whole time, which appeared like a rivulet of silver; but below Kingston bridge, the setting sun gilded its surface with magnificent effect. The boats appeared like little pieces of cork. The Penitentiary at Milbank had the resemblance of a twelfth-cake cut into quarters; and old and new London bridges were like two feeble efforts of the works of man. At our greatest altitude an awful stillness prevailed; and I can neither describe its grandeur, nor my own excitement. We let loose a pigeon, and having a favourable country below, prepared to descend. Mr. Green having hailed some men, I saw them run, and we fell into a field of wheat near Kingston, with scarcely any rebound; in fact a child might have alighted with safety.' The greatest altitude of the aeronauts was a mile and a quarter.

But the most interesting aeronautic trips of late days were those of Mr. Green, November 7th, 1836, and July 24th, 1837. In the first, he started in an immense balloon from Vauxhall gardens, accompanied by Messrs. Ma-

son and Holland; and after traversing a space of 500 miles in eighteen hours, descended at Weilburg, in Nassau. It was nearly five in the afternoon, and dark, when the intrepid trio passed over Dover, in the direction of France. 'It would be impossible,' writes Mr. Mason, 'not to have been struck with the grandeur of the prospect at this particular moment of our voyage. Behind us, the whole line of English coast appeared sparkling with scattered lights, which every moment augmented: on either side below us, the interminable ocean spread its waves: and before us arose a dense barrier of clouds, fantastically surmounted with a gigantic representation of parapets and turrets, as if designed to stay our further progress. In a few minutes afterwards we had entered within its dusky limits, and for a while became involved in the double obscurity of the surrounding vapours, and of the approach of night.' At length the lights of Calais glittered beneath the voyagers, who found that an hour and two minutes had been occupied in the passage of the Channel. 'The night having now completely closed in,' continues Mr. Mason, 'the scene beneath was one which exceeds description. The earth's surface, for many a league around, exhibited a starry spectacle, that almost rivalled in brilliancy the lustre of the firmament above. During the earlier portion of the night, ere the inhabitants had retired to rest, large patches of light would frequently appear just above the horizon, in the direction in which we were advancing, bearing no faint resemblance to the effect of some vast conflagration. By degrees, as we drew nigh, this confused mass of illumination increased in intensity and extent, until at length, the balloon having attained a position whence we could more immediately direct our view, it would resolve itself into its parts, and, shooting out into streets, or spreading into squares, present us with the perfect model of a town. In this manner did we traverse a large portion of the European continent, embracing within

our horizon an immense succession of towns and villages, whose artificial illumination alone enabled us to distinguish them.' The city of Liege was the last marked out by its more fervid and expanded light, proceeding from the very numerous iron factories therein; and, soon after watching the forms of its streets, the aeronauts were imbosed in thick darkness, and saw no more of the earth.

It was now past midnight, and the machine proceeded in silence, without disturbance of any kind, until half-past three o'clock in the morning of the 8th; when, on a sudden, the balloon, owing to a discharge of ballast, rose with considerable rapidity, and seriously alarmed, as may be imagined, the two inexperienced voyagers, by its consequent agitation. 'While all around was impenetrable darkness,' continues Mr. Mason, 'an explosion issued from the machine above, followed by a violent rustling of the silk, and by other signs which might be supposed to accompany its bursting. The car became at the same instant subjected to a powerful concussion, and appeared (instead of rising, as was the fact) to be sinking into the abyss below. A second and a third explosion followed, attended with the same effects; after which the balloon recovered its usual form and stillness.' This is explained by the aeronaut to have been occasioned by the increasing volume of the balloon, when subject to less pressure by its higher position in the atmosphere; the network which surrounded it having frozen about it when in its shrunken capacity, and formed an obstacle to its distension,—hence the explosions. The party at length landed, to the great astonishment of the Germans, at Weilburg, it being then about eight in the morning. A fortnight's provisions accompanied the adventurers, and a lamp was kept burning all the night.

The excursion last to be mentioned (July 24th, 1837), fatal as it was to one of the party, was very nearly so to the other two. A Mr. Cocking having constructed a parachute, in

which he purposed ascending by attaching it to the car of Mr. Green's balloon, the conjoint machine ventured into the clouds from Vauxhall gardens, just before eight in the evening. Mr. Green and Mr. Spencer were in the car, and Mr. Cocking was suspended far beneath in the parachute. The balloon had reached about a mile in height, when Mr. Cocking liberated the parachute, and fell a mangled corpse in the apparatus, near Lee in Kent. The presence of mind of Mr. Green, who was only aware of Mr. Cocking's departure by the awful change in the balloon's progress, secured (under Providence, whose power the whole party were so obviously and inconsiderately tempting) the life of himself and of his friend; and his own words are alone adequate to a description of their escape. 'We felt a slight jerk on the liberating iron, but quickly discovered, from not having changed our elevation, that Mr. Cocking had failed in his attempt to free himself. Another and more powerful jerk ensued, and in an instant the balloon shot up with the velocity of a skyrocket.

'The effect upon us at this moment is almost beyond description. The immense machine, which suspended us between heaven and earth, while forced upwards with terrific violence, amidst the howlings of a fearful hurricane, rolled about as if revelling in a freedom for which it had long struggled; and assuming at last the motion of a snake, seemed working its way towards a given object. During this frightful operation, the gas was rushing out in torrents from the valves; and had it not been for the application to our mouths of two pipes leading into a silk bag, containing 100 gallons of atmospheric air, with which we had furnished ourselves previous to starting, we must both within a minute have been suffocated. The gas, notwithstanding this precaution, soon deprived us of sight; and for five minutes we were, as far as our visionary powers were concerned, in a state of total darkness.' When, at length, the great

escape of gas had given a rapidly descending power to the machine, Mr. Spencer, having somewhat recovered his sight, found the mercury in the barometer to stand at 13. 20, showing an elevation even then of 23,384 feet, or about four miles and a quarter. It was calculated that no less than 180,000 gallons of gas had been set free in the perilous struggle, insomuch as that the greatest altitude of the aeronauts must have far exceeded four miles. At about nine o'clock they safely came down at Offham, near Maidstone, where it happened singularly that the adventurers were supplied with beds for the night by the Rev. Mr. Mooney, son of major Mooney, the aeronaut, who ascended from Norwich, July 1785, and fell into the sea twenty miles off Lowestoft.

London Streets appointed to be kept in better order, 1764. This was effected by a general repaving, giving a reasonable width to the footpaths, and using large flat stones for them, to distinguish them more accurately from the coach-roads. Signs were also ordered to be taken down (for every shop had its sign projecting over the footpath, swinging upon an iron bar fastened to the house), the dripping rain from these having long been an annoyance to passengers. Sewers and drains were increased in number, and scavengers were appointed to sweep away such filth as could not escape by those channels. A very important branch of trade is now established in this way, and the dust of our streets has been of late years, by a singular species of alchymy, turned into gold. It will scarcely be credited that the five parishes alone of Mary-le-bonne, St. George Hanover-square, St. Martin in the fields, St. James's, and St. Paul Covent-garden, receive at the present time from contracting scavengers, no less a sum total than 3,780*l.* for a year's permission to collect and carry away their accumulated dirt.

The Bampton Lectures founded, 1780. John Bampton, canon of Salisbury, left estates to remunerate a

lecturer, to be yearly chosen by the heads of colleges at Oxford on the first Tuesday in Easter term, who should preach eight divinity lectures the year following at St. Mary's, Oxford, the subjects being one of six, viz. 1st, to confirm and establish the Christian faith, and to confute all heretics and schismatics; 2nd, upon the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures; 3rd, upon the authority of the writings of the primitive fathers, as to the faith and practice of the primitive church; 4th, upon the divinity of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ; 5th, upon the divinity of the Holy Ghost; 6th, upon the articles of the Christian faith, as comprehended in the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds. As men of known talents are usually selected to preach these lectures, the appointment has been considered a stepping-stone to high promotion.

The United States of America acknowledged free by the Mother Country, 1783. America, as we usually denominate the United States, is an extraordinary country; and has *progressed* more (to use a favourite expression of its own) in a given space of time, than any other country of which we know the history. But to gain a correct notion of the people as a nation is not an easy matter, even after all that has been recorded in the lively, and many of them flippant and partial works of the day. In the vernacular tongue they appear to be making revolting changes, altering the emphasis, and vulgarizing the pronunciation of words, in ways that even the lovers of slang in our own country have never dreamed of. In wealth, arts, manufactures, and her navy, America is growing rich indeed; and from the natural resources of the country, she bids fair to stand, at some not far distant time, a still more imposing power. We must, in fact, regard the States as the marble in the sculptor's hand; the greater portion of the figure is yet rough and shapeless; fine points, have, however, come out, and from the polish of which they are susceptible, the vein is seen to be good,

and time only wanted for its more accurate developement. Respecting the remnant of the mother-church in America, it is singular to observe, that bishop White of Pennsylvania, who died so recently as 1836, had consecrated, up to the period of his death, every other bishop of the existing Anglo-American church; that prelate himself having been originally consecrated by Moore, archbishop of Canterbury, before the rupture with England.

Botany Bay made a convict colony, 1788. Gradually from this beginning, England has obtained a valuable acquisition of territory in New Holland, or Australia. Numbers of voluntary emigrants resort thither to obtain grants of land; and the separate colonies of Port Jackson, Van Dieman's Land, and Swan River, are fully established. As the wool of all the settlements is remarkably fine, there is every chance of its becoming the staple commodity of commerce.

Wood Engraving improved, 1790, by Bewick, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, who, with his brother, published a history of quadrupeds, with the engravings in relief, in consequence of which they could be worked together with the letter-press. These specimens, many of which consisted of vignettes, worthy of the first artists in point of design, were equal in delicacy to copper-plates, and have been since copied in oil on an enlarged scale by various painters. The art has gone on improving; and there is now a depth and richness in our wood engraving, which renders it often superior, especially in architectural drawing, to both steel and copper.

Vaccination brought into notice in England by Dr. Jenner, 1798. A periodical work, published at Göttingen by Mr. Steinback, made mention, 1769, of the singular immunity that all such tenders of cows had from the infection of smallpox, however epidemical, as had caught from the udders of the animals an eruptive pustole upon the hand or arm. Dr. Barry, of Cork, too asserted, that a disorder called

Shinagh had prevailed from time immemorial in Ireland, having the same origin and the same effects. But Dr. Jenner, who had long resided in Gloucestershire, brought the discovery fully before the British public, after watching for many years the escape of various persons concerned in the care of the cows in his neighbourhood, during the rage of virulent smallpox. It is sufficient to say, that after nearly forty years' trial, it has been found, with very few exceptions (provided it has had due encouragement and protection, by the firm prohibition of inoculation for the smallpox), a perfect protection from the scourge of smallpox; and such as have had a relative or friend maimed for life, either in intellect or limbs, by the latter disease, will not hesitate for an instant to try the effect of the vaccine inoculation on their offspring, and to thank God that they have thus a chance of escape from one of the most destructive and loathsome of human maladies.

The Blind School, London, founded 1799, for the instruction of the blind children of indigent persons, in basket-making and other handicraft trades, by which they may obtain a livelihood; an institution truly honourable to our nation. Let him who doubts respecting vaccination, visit this school, and inquire into the causes of early blindness amongst the objects of the charity; and he will quit it convinced that any approach to a succedaneum for a disorder, so often fatal in its consequences as the smallpox, should be hailed as a blessing.

The Philanthropic Society, London, established 1799, for the bringing up in religious principles, and to trade, the children of convicted criminals; one amongst the many peculiarly Christian institutions of our country.

Lithography invented, 1800. Aloys Senefelder, a German stage-player, observing that calcareous stones had the property of receiving greasy lines, and, by pressure, of transmitting them to paper, made the experiment with ink, and obtained equally accurate impres-

sions. The stones made use of are chiefly found in Bavaria, and their surface being ground level with fine sand until a grain appears, they are sent to the lithographer, who, with a greasy chalk, draws or writes on them as he would upon paper. The printer, before striking off his impressions, throws an acid solution over the drawings or writings, to fix them; and 5000 copies may then be taken from them, before they are worn. The art is now constantly applied to circular letters, etchings, &c. The Bavarians assert that their late king, Maximilian, discovered the art, and revealed it to Senefelder.

Gas-lighting introduced, 1802. The inflammable gases were known originally for their direful effects, rather than for their useful qualities. Miners were acquainted with two of them, called the *choke damp* and the *fire damp*, long before the establishment of the Itoyal Society; but Mr. Murdoch was the person who first applied gas to the purposes of illumination. This gentleman, residing at Soho, near Birmingham, covered the works of Soho, on occasion of the celebration of the peace of 1802, with a splendour that astonished the population of the surrounding country. Early in 1809, Mr. Clegg, of Soho, communicated to the society of arts his plan of lighting manufactories with gas; and after a good deal of dispute, a bill was passed in parliament to incorporate the London and Westminster gas-light and coke company. From comparative darkness, the metropolis, on a sudden, emerged each night into a state of brilliant illumination; while nooks and alleys, that had never seen even the light of the sun, shared in the general lustre. The perpetual full moon of gas at once extinguished the twinkling oil-lamps of the parish, which, like the lighthouses of the ocean, had acted as guides rather than lights. In a word, Mr. Murdoch's discovery has suppressed more vice than the society for the suppression of vice itself: rogues cannot bear the

light, and have thus, by a method similar to the Roman one, which made houses of ill-character *transparent*, been routed from their dens. 'Why' says a facetious writer of our day, 'has not old Murdoch his statue? In other days, that statue would have equalled the Colossus at Rhodes, and the demi-philosopher would have breathed flame like the chimera: in the fabulous ages before that, he would have come down to us a demi-god, the rival of Prometheus, Hercules, and Atlas. Why not cast him in Achillean brass, and make him breathe gas like the dragon of Wantley? Ingrata Patria—why not?' Oil and other materials have been of late much used for the production of gas; but coal is still the staple commodity; and it is calculated that the gas-lamps of London alone consume not less than 40,000 chaldrons of coals in the year. The gas-pipes of the metropolis, in 1830, were upwards of 1000 miles in length.

The African Slave Trade abolished, 1807, by act of parliament, through the long-continued exertions of Mr. Wilberforce. The Portuguese were the first Europeans who embarked in this traffic, and their example was soon followed by the Dutch and English. The commerce was long cherished by our government, as a source of national and colonial wealth; but by the thinking part of the nation it was considered, from the commencement, inconsistent with the rights of man, and suspected to be carried on by acts of violence. The real facts, in the main, were these: Our West India colonies required labourers who could bear the climate; Europeans, even with high pay, underwent the toil with difficulty; many of the savage nations of Africa were known to barter their children for mere baubles; and worthless sea-captains, who were little better than pirates, established a trade in human flesh. From fair purchases, the adventurers proceeded to surprise and steal their victims, or to bribe individuals of the African race

in so potent a way, as to induce them to entrap their brethren, and give them up to the iniquitous dealers. Taken in the aggregate, the conduct of the slave-masters towards their wretched dependants was mild and merciful; and it is a fact that, in the regular supply of the necessities of life, the Africans were better off in their enslaved than in their natural state; while there could be no security of life in countries where, on all occasions of public rejoicing, human blood is freely shed. But it had become clear to reasoning men, who claimed to be called Christians, that, in a state of nature, no one has a *right* to seize upon another, and compel him to labour for his subsistence; and as independent communities stand to each other in the same relation that individuals do in a state of nature, so cannot there exist a right in one state to carry off by force, or entice by fraud, the subjects of any other community, for the purpose of reducing them to servitude.

Steel Engraving, 1810. Mr. Dyer, an American merchant residing in London, obtained a patent this year for an improved method of using plates and presses, the principles of which had been communicated to him by Mr. Jacob Perkins, also an American, who soon after became celebrated in England for what is called roller-press printing, by hardened steel plates. In engraving by copper-plates, the lines become speedily worn; and if many impressions are to be thrown off, the plate requires frequent retouching, and even then the latter impressions are inferior. Engraving by pressure has obviated this difficulty. An engraving is first made upon soft steel, which is hardened by a peculiar process. A cylinder of soft steel is now made to roll slowly backward and forward over it, thus receiving the design,—but in relief. This is, in its turn, hardened without injury; and if it be slowly rolled to and fro, with strong pressure, on successive plates of copper, it will imprint on a *thousand*

of them a perfect fac-simile of the original steel engraving from which it resulted. Thus the number of copies producible from the same design, is multiplied a thousand-fold. But even this is very far short of the limits to which this process may be extended. The hardened steel roller, bearing the design upon it in relief, may be employed to make a few of its first impressions upon plates of *soft steel*, and these, being hardened, become the representatives of the original engraving, and may in their turn be made the parents of other rollers, each generating copper-plates like their prototype. Seeing that the engraving on copper could hardly afford 20,000 copies, the engravers were naturally at first alarmed at the idea of preparing a steel plate that would at least afford ten times that number of impressions. But this circumstance, by enabling the booksellers to produce highly embellished works at low prices, induced the public to take off large impressions, and has increased ten-fold the business of the engravers, and fifty-fold that of the old copper-plate-printers.

Phrenology first promulgated, 1810. Erigena, who lived in the time of Alfred, has, in his work '*De Divisione Naturæ*,' given the figure of a skull with the places marked as the residence of six properties of the human mind; and naming these, as he does, *imaginativa*, *cogitativa*, *estimativa*, &c., we may presume that Dr. Gall, a German, who in 1810 published at Paris his system of craniology, thence borrowed at least his peculiar phraseology. Craniology, or the science of the skull, has now received the more definite title of Phrenology, or the science of mind; and although Dr. Gall was its founder, Dr. Spurzheim became his so able auxiliary, as to be regarded in the like light. Considering the outward form of the human skull, in an adult, to be an index of the mind of the individual, these gentlemen divided the head into thirty-three compartments, assigning to each its peculiar power. These

divisions take the name of organs, and, according to their indications, are called the organ of *amativeness*, of *philoprogenitiveness*, *destructiveness*, &c.; of which it is enough to say, that the phrenologist makes them the origin of both virtues and vices,—*destructiveness*, for example, being in its *use*, the removal of obstacles and the annihilation of evil; in its *abuse*, cruelty and murder. Since the science seemed not only to strike at the root of free-will, but to call in question the benevolence of the Deity, it had at first, and still continues to have, many opponents; and as no practical good is likely to result from its cultivation, few need lament, if, like the kindred system of Lavater, it should fall into disrepute.

Steam-boats first used in England, 1811. Although Mr. Hull made an experiment in 1736 with steam-boats, it was not until 1807 that the Americans proved their safety and service. The merit of constructing them is due to Mr. Bell of Glasgow, who sent his model to America, and who built the *Comet*, 1811, the first practical steam-boat in Europe, to navigate the Clyde. Subsequent years have wrought innumerable improvements in the machinery, iron being often used in lieu of wood; and from navigating canals and rivers, they have been put forth to plough the great deep. The advantage of steam, as applied to navigation, consists in the ability of a steam-vessel to proceed during calms, at which periods the sail-ship, depending upon the wind for impetus, is powerless.

National Education commenced in England 1811. For many years previously, a quaker named Lancaster had attempted the education of poor children on an enlarged scale, by certain mechanical means; and as the plan was spreading, and left out religious principles, some members of the church of England commenced a mode of tuition of a more hopeful kind, which has now become a national affair, few parishes in the kingdom being without their national school. Dr. Bell, who

had superintended similar establishments at Madras, became the setter off of the first one in England, at Lambeth. Subsequently have been founded what are called 'infant schools,' which undertake the care of children from the age of two years, and thus prepare them for the national ones.

Nearly thirty years have passed, and the problem is by no means solved, whether the indiscriminate instruction of the lower classes be the road to national prosperity. That guilt has not diminished in amount since the spread of book-knowledge is clear enough, on viewing the returns of the number of culprits annually committed to prison in England and Wales. Crimes of an open and atrocious character, those of mere violence and force, have diminished in frequency; but offences of fraud and furtive pillage have become more prevalent than ever. We hear no more of highway robbery; but forgery, embezzlement, and the robbery of masters by their servants, are matters of everyday occurrence. Whether or not the more extensive cultivation of the public mind has merely shifted delinquency from one class of iniquity to another, and supplanted the wickedness of brute courage by the more insidious manœuvres of polished cunning, is a question that a more lengthened experience of the national system of education must decide: It is enough to say, that it behoves all who have the good of their country at heart, to consider well what *sort* of education they give the children of the poor. All may be well if the boys be prepared to make good artisans, constables, overseers, and jurymen, and the girls to become good housemaids, washerwomen, and plain needle-women; most solemn care being taken that each be well grounded in religious faith and principle, and duly impressed with the awful responsibility of an oath. Infant schools have been seen to produce very beneficial effects upon the character, when properly conducted. They have obviously corrected many a moral defect, which, through the negligence

of poor parents, would have become an ineradicable vice; while they have, at the same time, formed the temper, and originated habits of application and obedience, that have been found singularly favourable to the subsequent progress of the children, whether in book-learning at the maturer schools, or in gaining a knowledge of some useful art in the world.

Vauxhall Bridge founded 1813, by prince Charles of Brunswick, and completed in 1816. It was at first called the Brunswick-bridge; and the cost was 300,000*l*. It is a light and elegant structure, having nine arches of cast iron, each of seventy-eight feet span: and the whole length is 809 feet.

The Safety Lamp invented 1815. Sir Humphry Davy, during a lengthened inquiry into the nature of 'fire-damp' in coal-mines, which occasions terrible explosions, accompanied often with great loss of life, discovered that if a lamp or candle be surrounded with wire gauze, or with metallic plates, perforated with numerous small holes, though the gas or fire-damp may explode within, it will not inflame the surrounding atmosphere without. Upon this principle he formed the safety-lamp; and it has completely answered the benevolent purpose of the inventor. The saving of human life effected by this providential discovery has been great indeed in amount; and if monuments of brass and marble are at all due to man's perishable renown, the grateful countrymen of Davy, and the civilized world at large, might aid, without a blush, in perpetuating his honoured name.

Waterloo Bridge completed 1817. It is longer than any other bridge over the Thames, and is perfectly level. The cost exceeded a million sterling; and from its stability, it is calculated to remain a monument of architectural beauty and simplicity to remote ages. It has nine elliptical arches, each of 120 feet span; and is forty-two feet broad, and 1242 feet

long. It was projected as the Strand-bridge, when begun in 1811; but the victory of Waterloo, before its completion, and its formal opening by the conqueror in person, occasioned the change of name.

Savings'-banks established 1817.

Many charitable individuals had induced certain among the labouring classes to put by weekly a small portion of their earnings, as a provision for declining years; and had fixed upon secure depositories for such savings. In 1817 the plan was thought worthy of parliamentary notice; and a law was passed, the better to preserve these collections for the ultimate benefit of the depositors, whereby government security was given, and a fair interest allowed. When, therefore, the trustees of any savings'-bank receive 50*l.* they must pay it into the national fund, and receive, in lieu, from the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, a debenture bearing interest 3*l.* 16*s.* 0½*d.* per cent. per year, and allow to the depositors an interest of 2½*d.* per day, or 3*l.* 8*s.* 5½*d.* per cent. per year, taking the balance to themselves for the expenses of the bank, viz. one farthing per cent. per day. The trustees are not allowed to receive deposits from any whose previous deposits have amounted to 150*l.*; and when the balance due to any one depositor amounts with interest to 200*l.*, no further interest is to be allowed. Persons are not allowed to subscribe into more than one savings'-bank at a time. The total number of these banks in Eng-

land, Wales, and Ireland (for Scotland seems to be content with the interest given on small deposits by private bankers), was recently 500, with funds amounting to sixteen millions sterling.

Southwark Bridge completed, 1819.

It is a magnificent structure of cast-iron, with stone piers, designed by Mr. Rennie, and consists of three arches, the centre one having a span of 240 feet. The bridge and the approaches cost 800,000*l.* with a weight of iron of 5780 tons; being one of the most stupendous works ever formed of such materials.

The Life-boat invented 1790. This was the production of Mr. Greathead; and the vessel, so important in cases of shipwreck, can neither be upset nor sunk, will row both ways, and is thirty feet long and ten broad.—*Galvanism discovered, 1791.*—*The Deaf and Dumb Asylum founded 1792,* near London, for the education of youth of both sexes, so afflicted.—*The Telegraph invented 1793,* by M. Chappe, a Frenchman, or at least first used by his recommendation, as a national mode of communicating intelligence.—*The New London Docks founded 1800,* for merchant shipping chiefly trading throughout Europe. The West India Docks were opened in 1802, and the East India in 1806.—*The Military Asylum, Chelsea, founded 1801,* by the duke of York, for the education of 1000 boys and girls, children of soldiers, orphans, or whose fathers are serving on foreign stations.

CHIEF BATTLES.

Bunker's Hill, 1775, the first pitched battle between the American insurgents and the king's troops; the Americans were defeated, but the English lost 226 killed, and had 800 wounded.—*York Town, 1781.* Earl Cornwallis, the English general, was here surrounded by the force of general Washington, and compelled to surrender with his whole army, as prisoners of war; an event which led to the recognition by Britain of American independence.

—*Lord Howe's Victory, 1794,* happened on the 1st of June, in the Atlantic ocean, 1000 miles from the coast of France; and it was the first of that series of triumphs which eventually extinguished the French navy, in the war of the revolution. Villaret-Joyeuse was the French admiral.—*Nile, 1798,* gained by the immortal Nelson over the French fleet under Admiral Brueys, in Aboukir bay.—*Seringapatam, 1799.* This capital of the Mysore country, in

Hindustan, was taken by general Harris, and the body of Tippoo Sultan was found under heaps of slain at one of the gates.—*Marengo* in Italy, 1800, between Napoleon, and the Austrians under Melas; in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of 15,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.—*Austerlitz*, in Moravia, 1805, gained by Napoleon against the emperors of Austria and Russia in person; a contest as sanguinary as any in the annals of civilized nations. The league which had been formed to check the ambitious progress of the French despot, was thus effectually dissolved.—*Trafalgar*, 1805. This was fought off the cape of that name in Spain, when the gallant Nelson totally defeated the combined fleets of France and Spain, under the command of admiral Villeneuve, who, with two Spanish admirals, was made prisoner. So great a victory, however, was purchased at the price of the illustrious Nelson's life.—*Jena*, 1806, between Napoleon and the king of Prussia; wherein the latter was defeated, and his general, the duke of Brunswick, mortally wounded. The duke implored of the conqueror that he might die in Brunswick; but his request was treated with scorn, a circumstance which led to the devoted hostility of his son, the duke of Brunswick-Oëls, to the person of the French usurper.—*Maida*, 1806, gained by general Sir John Stuart and the English, over double the number of French, commanded by general Regnier, in Calabria, South Italy.—*Friedland*, 1807. Buonaparte in this (in Prussia) defeated the Russians with great slaughter, and the peace of Tilsit was the result.—*Corunna*, 1809, gained by the excellent general Sir John Moore, though at the expense of his own valuable life, while retreating to his ships before the French.—*Leipsic*, 1813, fought by Napoleon against the allied armies of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, the French having 180,000, and the allies 300,000. The fact is, that the Germans rose *en masse* on this occasion, to shake off the yoke of the mo-

dern Charlemagne: and, under such circumstances, few nations have ever succumbed even to a foe incomparably superior in number. The emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and Bonaparte, since king of Sweden, entered the city, when victory had determined for them, by three different gates, after occasioning a loss to the French of 80,000 men, and 150 pieces of cannon. The issue was the freedom of Germany and the march of the allies to Paris to dethrone Napoleon.

Waterloo, 1815. On the 16th of June, Napoleon, advancing from Paris, attacked marshal Blücher and the Prussian forces at Ligny, and routed them; while another party of the French contended on the same day at Quatre Bras, against the Brunswick corps, and were driven from the field, though not without the fall of the brave duke who led his troops to action. On the 17th a deluge of rain fell; and on the 18th the duke of Wellington, having chosen his ground on the plain of Waterloo, near Brussels, gave battle to the enemy. It was the first occasion on which the two greatest generals of the age had met in personal command of their respective forces. Napoleon had 75,000 on the field, and the duke 70,000; the former were wholly French, and, under their idol, felt assured that victory would crown their efforts; while the positive number of British soldiers was but 32,000, including the German legion; the rest being composed of Belgian, Dutch, and Nassau troops, and 16,000 out of the 70,000 never acting on the field, but remaining stationed all day near Hal to cover the approach to Brussels. The duke's plan was to act on the defensive; and it is acknowledged by the most experienced military men, that the strategy he displayed on this memorable day has placed him highest on the roll of modern warriors. It has always been allowed that to act on the defensive requires more tact, talent, and technical knowledge, than the assault, the coup-de-main, and all other modes of attack, in war: that

Napoleon was never surpassed in the latter description of contest is generally admitted, and it adds a laurel to the brow of our own Wellington to reflect that, on the field of Waterloo, all the energies of his opponent's master-mind were aroused to baffle him; and that, though put into every form of action against him which consummate skill could suggest, they availed not. The cool intrepidity and clear-sightedness of the duke totally frustrated every manœuvre of Napoleon; and the last fruitless effort of the latter to break the English line, by an attack of his guards in two columns, before the Prussians could advance to give aid, convinced him at once of the high state of British military discipline. The two columns were received with a fire of artillery and musketry, still more tremendous, lasting, and destructive, than any that had, in the earlier part of the day, repelled similar assaults: they attempted to deploy; but, in so doing, became confused, and at last gave way. It was at that instant that Napoleon, posted on a height, and following through a spy-glass the movements of his favourite guards, turned pale, and exclaimed, 'They are mixed together! All is lost!' and galloped off the field. It has been observed, that this famous contest, to be rightly understood, should be regarded as a battle fought by the right wing of an army, for the purpose of maintaining a position till the arrival of its left should render victory certain. Till the approach of the Prussians, therefore, the battle was purely defensive, without preventing offensive operations, as far as charges of cavalry and infantry may be so termed: it precluded all attempts to follow up partial success. It was, in fact, a holding fast of ground; which, if successful, could not fail of leading to the most splendid results, the mo-

ment the flank movement should take effect. The two great leaders who thus, on this memorable day, respectively closed a military career, that will long remain the wonder of future generations, were born within three months of each other; the illustrious duke in May, and Napoleon Buonaparte in August, of the year 1769. This important victory was gained on the same day that king John signed Magna Charta, 1215—six exact centuries after that memorable event.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey.* 1757, Mustapha III.; 1774, Achmet IV.; 1789, Selim III.; 1807, Mustapha IV.; 1808, Mahmoud II. *Popes.* 1758, Clement XIII.; 1769, Clement XIV.; 1775, Pius VI.; 1800, Pius VII. *France.* 1715, Louis XV.; 1774, Louis XVI.; 1793, Louis XVII. then Republic; 1799, Napoleon Consul; 1804, Napoleon Emperor; 1814, Louis XVIII. *Russia.* 1741, Elizabeth; 1762, Peter III.; 1762, Catherine II.; 1795, Paul I.; 1801, Alexander. *Sweden.* 1751, Adolphus Frederick; 1771, Gustavus III.; 1792, Gustavus Adolphus IV.; 1809, Charles XIII.; 1818, Charles XIV. *Portugal.* 1750, Joseph I.; 1777, Don Pedro III. and Maria; 1786, Maria alone; 1800, John regent; 1816, John VI. *Spain.* 1759, Charles III.; 1788, Charles IV.; 1808, Ferdinand VII. *Germany.* 1745, Francis I. of Lorraine and Maria Theresa of Austria; 1765, Joseph II.; 1790, Leopold II.; 1792, Francis II., assumed the title of emperor of Austria 1804. *Poland.* 1733, Frederick Augustus II.; 1764, Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski; 1773, Divided between Russia, Prussia, and Germany. *Prussia.* 1740, Frederick II.; 1786, Frederick III.; 1797, Frederick IV. *Denmark.* 1746, Frederick V.; 1766, Christiern VII.; 1808, Frederick VI.

SECTION IV.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE IV.

1820 TO 1830—10 YEARS.

Personal History. George IV. was the eldest son and child of George III. and was born at St. James's London, August 12, 1762. His principal tutors were Archbishop Markham and Dr. Cyril Jackson; and though he became not a sound classical scholar, he acquired his own tongue, so as to write and speak it with an elegance and purity seldom surpassed. French he spoke with fluency, and German with tolerable ease: while grace and dignity were observable in all his actions during youth. In after life, no one could turn a compliment with greater neatness, or give more value to a friendly act, by the mode of announcing it, than he. Unhappily he formed connexions early, which led him into habits of improvidence and immorality; but as he grew older, the prize-ring, the race-course, and bull-baiting, were thrown aside; and his marriage with his cousin, the princess of Brunswick, 1795, was hailed by the nation as a propitious event. Few unions, however, have been attended with a more lamentable series of consequences. By his consort he had only one child, a daughter, born in 1796, the amiable princess Charlotte of Wales, who, soon after her marriage with Leopold, prince of Saxe-Coburg, now king of Belgium, was carried to the grave 1817. It was in 1811, upon the declaration of his medical attendants that his venerable parent was again unable to attend to state affairs, that the prince of Wales was appointed Regent of the United Kingdom, with certain limitations for one year. When the period of these restrictions had expired, and the prince became invested with the complete authority of a sovereign, it was expected that a change of administration would take place, and that the tory ministry under Mr. Perceval would be superseded by a whig one. The Regent, however, declared himself satisfied with the honourable views of his father's advisers, and kept them; and when Mr. Perceval, in that same year, had fallen by the hand of an assassin, a new cabinet of the same cast was formed, having the earl of Liverpool at its head. To the end of the regency, and during his subsequent reign, George IV. displayed his attachment to tory principles, a circumstance which was thought strange, when his early friendships, almost exclusively amongst the opposite party, were remembered. The following sum of his character was written by one who possessed the means of knowing it: 'His disposition was marked by strong feelings, both of kindness and resentment; his memory was tenacious of the sense of injury; he was deficient in that magnanimity which is swift to forget the occasion of displeasure; he was affable and familiar in his address, and fond of facetious intercourse with those who were honoured with his personal intimacy. But he was jealous of his dignity beyond what so exalted a station required; and to any thoughtless violation of personal respect, even in moments when he appeared to lay aside the formal distinctions of rank, he was sensitive in the extreme. He had a heart feelingly alive to the claims of humanity, a benevolence truly munificent, and a hand 'open as day to melting charity!' His fine taste led him to patronize the arts which embellish life, more than any British sovereign since the days of the first Charles; and he was the steady patron of literature and the learned. His love of architectural dis-

play,* though indulging in what was rather curious than correct, was associated with ideas of grandeur and splendid improvement, as the streets and buildings which he caused to be erected abundantly prove.' Although he could not realize the boast of Augustus, that 'he found the metropolis of brick, and left it of marble,' yet, under his auspices, a great part of London underwent a transformation quite as unexpected, and nearly as beautiful. In person, George IV. was of a commanding figure; his countenance resembled that of his mother in its general lineaments, and there was a dignity, combined with a softness in his eye, which gave an attractive expression to his whole face. Latterly he became extremely corpulent; but he was nevertheless active, and scrupulously attentive to his dress, and maintained the same elegant carriage which had so distinguished him in youth. It should not be omitted that the town of Brighton owes its celebrity and prosperity almost entirely to this sovereign, who spent the best period of his life in constructing and altering his celebrated palace there; during which his court, decidedly the most splendid and liberal in Europe, resided in the place for many months each year, and so raised it, from the grade of a mere bathing-place, to the rank of a first-rate town, with the privilege of sending two members to parliament.

Political History. The prince of Wales had for so many years conducted the state for his venerable parent, that when he became king *de jure*, no political change of any description took place. A great deal of discontent, however, had been manifested by the lower orders during the latter years of the regency, arising from the stagnation in business of every description, consequent upon the close of so lengthened a war; and the monarch was scarcely seated on his throne, when a conspiracy to destroy his ministers at a cabinet-dinner was detected. Thistlewood, who had been formerly tried for treason, collected a gang of desperate fellows in Cato-street, who were to march to Lord Harrowby's, and throw hand-grenades into the dining-room; but a spy revealed the plot, just in time to save the party from destruction. The ferment occasioned by the discovery of so atrocious a design, at length subsided, and preparations were making for the coronation of the king, when his consort, who had been separated from him soon after their marriage, returned from abroad, and demanded a participation in his honours as her just right.

It must here be stated that, some years subsequently to the separation in question, the conduct of the princess had been made the subject of a secret investigation, which, after a tedious and disgusting inquiry, ended in her acquittal. She then left England, and travelled to Syria, ultimately taking up her abode in the Austrian states of Italy; where her intimacy with a man named Bergami, whom she had raised from the post of courier to that of chamberlain, gave rise to fresh assaults upon her fame, and caused the sending out of a commission of lawyers, to ascertain the facts of the case at Milan. It was on the 5th of June, 1820, that, calling upon the British nation to support her claims, queen Caroline landed at Dover; and on the very day of her arrival in London, which took place with no small popular excitement, a message was sent to both houses of parliament, requesting that her conduct while in Italy should be made the subject of inquiry. A bill of pains and penalties was soon after introduced into the house of lords, to deprive her of her rights and dignities as queen, and to divorce her from her husband; her name having been previously omitted in the church service, and all foreign

* The five orders of Grecian architecture, which the Roman architect Vitruvius has the credit of having more than established, were the Tuscan, Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite.

powers having refused her the honours due to the rank she claimed. The trial soon began; and after a duration of more than six weeks, the ministers, who brought in the bill, could only command a majority of nine, so that they, with the usual policy, abandoned it. On the 29th of November, the queen went to St. Paul's cathedral, to return thanks for the result of the trial; and she was escorted back to Brandenburg-house, Hammersmith, her residence, by a vast concourse of persons on horseback, on foot, and in carriages; and indeed daily from this period, multitudes of the lower orders, and of the mechanical portion of the metropolis, flocked to the same spot with congratulatory addresses, and other tokens of an interest in her cause.

The coronation of the king was thus delayed until the following year; and as it was fully resolved to prevent the queen's participation in the ceremonial, nothing short of a popular commotion was looked for. But the ceremony was at length performed, July 19th, 1821, without interruption: the queen, indeed, was so indiscreet as to present herself at the doors of Westminster-abbey, and was refused admittance, but no notice was taken of the circumstance by the spectators, and her majesty returned to Hammersmith to brood over her disappointment. The excitement occasioned by occurrences such as have been named, necessarily affected the unhappy princess's health: while at the theatre in the beginning of August, she was seized with a violent bilious attack, and on the 7th of that month expired, at the age of fifty-two, her remains, in compliance with her dying request, being removed for interment to Brunswick. The transference of the corpse to the place of embarkation was attended with the loss of several lives: the mob compelled the bearers to pass through the city, while the military endeavoured to turn the procession in a different direction, pursuant to the orders of the government: the consequence was of course a conflict.

The king was on his way to visit Ireland, when he received the news of his consort's death: to the great joy of the people of that island, he did not turn back, but, arriving in Dublin, was received with every expression of loyalty, a countless multitude rending the air with their acclamations, and declaring he was the first English sovereign who had landed on their shores without hostile intentions. Shortly after his return, the king made an excursion to Hanover, the cradle of his race; and in the following year, 1822, paid a similar visit to Scotland. The profound peace which had now succeeded one of the most momentous and protracted wars on record, was marked by the usual natural consequences of such a transition. Employments were hard to be found for a disbanded army, the vast national debt required an immense taxation to pay its interest, agricultural produce fell in value from several causes, rents were with difficulty collected, and the famine and distress in Ireland brought on a pestilential disease, which was alone checked by the generous subscriptions of the English. The foundation too was laying for very serious losses amongst monied men; for as capital could be employed in nothing advantageous, a species of hoarding and gathering in began to take place, which, being totally in opposition to the usual spirit of a great commercial country, was likely to be as suddenly abandoned as it had been commenced, whenever a sufficient temptation to speculate on a large scale should offer. Two years had nearly elapsed, and no inducement powerful enough was presented; but before we speak of the issue, it will be necessary to glance at a few previous occurrences. Lord Londonderry, secretary for foreign affairs, having destroyed himself in a fit of insanity, while the king was in Scotland, Mr. Canning was appointed to succeed him; and when 'the holy alliance' had authorized the entry of the French into Spain to liberate Ferdinand VII., 1823, England remained neutral. In the same year, however, every Spanish

colony in South America declared itself independent, and had its independence acknowledged by the British government. In 1824 the British colonies in India and Africa were vigorously assaulted by their barbaric enemies. In the former case, the Burmese, who inhabit the peninsula on the east of Hindustan, and who, under the king of Ava, had risen to considerable importance, became formidable to the English; but after a severe conflict, they were compelled to solicit peace, which was granted on terms highly advantageous to the British. In Africa, the governor of Cape Coast, Sir Charles M^cCarthy, was overcome by the Ashantee king, and cruelly murdered, his head, wrapped up in a handkerchief, being carried about by the conqueror as a charm: this act, however, was subsequently avenged with severity, and the savage warrior forced to submission. Home affairs during these two years had proceeded peaceably. The year 1823 was a season of prosperity to the country generally, and to the manufacturing districts in particular; the revenue kept upon the increase; and large loans were freely supplied to the South-American colonists, to enable them to maintain their independence.

It was in 1824 that the public spirit was brought into full play, by the vast expectations of accumulating wealth, through the agency of joint-stock companies, which established themselves professedly to work the mines of Peru and Brazil; and as the legal interest of money had been just reduced to 3½ per cent. (at which it has ever since remained) persons of all ranks, including even capitalists, began to withdraw their property from the public funds, and to invest it in these novel speculations. The year 1825 opened with the same degree of hope; money appeared to be superabundant, and fresh schemes for appropriating it were promulgated every day. The time, however, was now come for putting a check to a course which was draining the nation of its property; and the moment that the lord chancellor, when a case connected with a joint-stock company was before him, declared that the holders of shares were liable, to the full extent of their property, for debts contracted on account of them, a gloom overcast the prospect of riches, which ingenuity had outlined, and enthusiasm had coloured with the richest tints. The share-market became crowded with sellers; buyers were not to be found; and those who had projected the schemes withdrew, as they found their ability, to enjoy the fruits of their craft: A deplorable reaction took place, public confidence was lost, and the nation, which had only a few months before felt the burthen of a superfluous capital, now found itself on the eve of insolvency. A panic fear suddenly seized the minds of many; and the drawing out of monies from the country banks was soon imitated in the metropolis, in December, every banking-house being besieged from the hour of opening to that of closing by anxious multitudes, whose folly, not to call it madness, was thus forcing on the catastrophe which it was their interest to avert. The consequence was not only the failure of many town and country bankers, but a total paralysis of mercantile credit; so that first the monied, then the manufacturing and mercantile, and ultimately the labouring classes, were affected in the most alarming manner. In a few weeks, hundreds of families were reduced from the summit of prosperity to a state of absolute poverty; and the blow, like the thunder-clap, circulated until, in each successive reverberation, it had touched every grade of persons in the empire, reaching at length even the continental and colonial connexions of our merchants.

The state of foreign affairs somewhat turned the public attention from the contemplation of domestic grievances, in the beginning of 1826. The succession to the throne of Portugal was disputed by the two sons of the late king John, and an expedition was sent out from England to aid the elder brother, Don Pedro; and in 1827 the contest between the Turks and Greeks, wherein the latter struggled for emancipation, was brought to a close by the sea-fight of

Navarino. In the same year, the duke of York, who had so long commanded the army, and was emphatically styled 'the soldier's friend,' paid the debt of nature; the death of Mr. Canning, who had succeeded lord Liverpool as prime minister, soon followed; and the reins of government passed quickly in succession through the hands of lord Goderich into those of the duke of Wellington. In 1828 the country had somewhat recovered from the dreadful blow of 1825; and the claims of the British Roman Catholics to emancipation from the restraints put upon them at the revolution, were so far listened to in parliament, as to occasion the repeal of the test and corporation acts, which required the receiving of the Eucharist according to the rites of the church of England, as a qualification for office. The formation of what were termed 'Brunswick clubs,' to resist all further concession to the papists, occasioned no small agitation in various parts of the country; and in Ireland there was so much violence displayed, that a civil war was on the point of breaking out, when, in the spring of 1829, a bill passed both houses, granting the desired emancipation. Nothing of moment occurred between the carrying of this important question (which had occupied every session of the houses from the time of the union with Ireland) and the decease of king George, which took place at Windsor castle, June 26, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the 11th of his reign. He was buried with the usual state in the chapel of St. George, at Windsor.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Cato-street Conspiracy, 1820, as in the history.

The Queen's Trial, 1820, as in the history.

Agricultural Distress, 1822. This was chiefly the result of the fall of those artificial prices attached to produce during the war, when the constant raising of loans forced up its value. The taxes requisite to carry on the government amounted to more than sixty millions, which were now to be raised in the country, without any equivalent; so that the farmer was at once incapacitated from paying his accustomed rate of rent, and the landowner, in many instances, rendered unable to pay the interest of his mortgages.

Fall of Interest, 1822. As those who possessed property in the public funds continued to receive their former amount of interest, though articles of consumption could be purchased at a cheaper rate, much envy was excited amongst such of the agricultural and other portions of the people, as had nothing but the sale of their goods to look to for support. This moment of jealousy was embraced by the ministry to reduce the rate of interest on a portion of national debt: the navy 5 per

cent. stock was brought down to four per cent., and, in two years after, the 4 per cents. were lowered to 3½. The measure gave a temporary relief to the government, but brought much distress upon a large class of the community, who, having advanced their money for the defence of the country in times of difficulty and danger, had reasonably expected that their property would have remained sacred. As the subject of *money matters* is imperfectly understood by the youthful reader, we will attempt a brief sketch of the cause of wealth, &c.

In the early ages of the world, when men began to see that their respective wants could be best supplied by the application of each individual to some one useful art, trade arose. Every man, instead of being his own provider of food, clothing, and habitation, devoted himself to supply only one want, or class of wants, and was either a raiser of cattle or corn, a maker of garments, a tent-maker, carpenter, sword-maker, &c. Trade consisted in barter. The breeder of cattle exchanged his ox for the vestments of the clothier, or the tools of the artisan. This being often attended with inconvenience and difficulty, a medium of exchange, which

should enable the barterers to mark with precision the differences of value, was to be sought. Probably stones and shells were the first substances resorted to for the purpose; but the superior utility of the ductile metals would soon be observed, and ultimately the scarcest and handsomest of those, gold and silver, would be selected as the media of exchange, or money.

Money represents the excess of production over consumption. When an artisan, after the sale of his works, finds he has more money in his hands than will be sufficient to reproduce goods equal in quantity and value to those he has sold, that overplus is pure profit; and if he save it, that saving, with other like savings, constitutes *capital*. Every saving marks the excess of production over consumption, and the accumulation of like excesses is the basis of wealth.

Wealth is either individual or national. Individual riches consist in one man's savings or capital; national, in the united savings of the individuals that compose a state. Consumption is either productive or unproductive: productive is that which supports the artisan (food, candles, the wear of tools, &c. the wood or leather or metal of which he forms his works) while he is engaged in the work of production: unproductive consumption is that which goes to support those who do not labour to produce. Production is either direct or indirect: direct, in the case of the artisan who consumes to produce forthwith; indirect, when the consumer does not work to produce, but gives his children a liberal education, whereby each will be competent at a future period to produce, &c. Alternate consumption and production are the 'links' which, in the chain of existence, throw off wealth at every turn, originating countless and endless branch-chains, in like manner productive. Consumption is essential to production: accumulation facilitates consumption, and so effects production.

Capital, in the early times, lay dormant. Men hoarded in coffers as much money

as would enable them to pass the rest of their days at ease, and then left off labour. By such a method, their savings were put to no use beyond their own consumption, and were totally absorbed at the period of death. There could be no national wealth where individuals refused to lend their savings for the uses of production. Capital, in the present day, is not suffered to lie dormant. The most effectual means of employing it in commercial countries is afforded by the banking system, which originated with the Venetians, 1157. The bank of England, now the largest of its kind in Europe, was projected by Mr. Patterson, a Scotsman, 1694. The object of banking is to provide for the full and constant employment of the floating capital of the nation; so as, in fact, to promote to the utmost degree individual and national wealth. This it effects by discounting, at short dates, the bills of merchants, whose power of production would be circumscribed but for this occasional assistance.

When capitalists unite to further works of public utility, such as bridges, docks, railroads, &c., they benefit the nation far beyond the aid they afford to such undertakings. Suppose they advance their money to complete a railroad. Two merchants residing at 100 miles of distance from each other have, before the formation of the railway, exchanged goods by canal or otherwise, at an annual expense to each of 1000*l*. The transit on the railroad costs each 200*l*. Here is a clear saving of 800*l*. per year apiece; and as the rate of carriage materially influences the price of goods, the merchants are respectively enabled to take off a portion of price at selling. Admitting that they do not let their customers have more than one-half the advantage gained that is still a great public benefit, an must materially tend to augment individual savings, and consequently the national capital.

But consumption is either productive or not. The man of fortune who lives up to his income, is an unproduc-

tive consumer, though he does not diminish his capital; because he saves nothing to lend to others at interest for the promotion of their undertakings, by which employment would be afforded to many more persons than he can find work for by his ordinary expenditure, (for he will maintain no more servants, &c. at the end of twenty years than he did at the commencement,) *which many more* would be again the cause of saving; while his own capital being increased would, on being lent again, employ yet more productive consumers, and so on. By such a course alone could the increasing population of a country be well supported without diminution of wages. The spendthrift is not only an unproductive consumer, but the destroyer of the principle of production. Mortgaging his estates, he lives upon their capital, withdrawing it from the use of many productive consumers, who, thus deprived of subsistence, cause a lowering of wages to others of their class, by their competition for labour. Were all capitalists to become spendthrifts, distress would be the speedy result to all classes.

The nature of the public funds, &c. must now be concisely described. From the time of William III. the English government, when requiring more money for war than could be supplied by taxation, has proposed terms to the nation for obtaining an advance of money, by mortgaging the revenue of future years for the indemnification of lenders. This mortgage may be either for a limited period or perpetual; and the parties lending may agree to accept of certain annual allowances for a certain time as a full equivalent, or to receive a life-annuity, or an annuity with the benefit of survivorship, called a *tontine*, whereby the whole sum to which the original annuitants were entitled, continues to be distributed amongst the survivors. The different investments are called stocks, each being limited by parliament to a certain sum; so that, when each fund is completed, no more stock can be

bought, though shares already purchased may be transferred from one person to another by selling. In the sale, a stock-holder may gain by purchasing with his share, should the value of the stock be higher than when he bought it; for the price of stocks is influenced by the plenty or scarcity of money, and by the quantity of the public debt, and is impaired by any event which threatens the safety or weakens the credit of the government. The bank of England is the agent for government in managing the affairs of these stocks (which are called collectively the national debt), and makes the quarterly payment of interest by the money raised in taxation, three-fifths of all the taxes raised annually going to support that interest.

Exchange is the daily settlement of accounts at the Royal Exchange, between merchants of different countries, and it is rendered difficult by the varying value of the currencies of the respective nations. What is called *the par* is necessary to be found with as much accuracy as the different coins will allow; and liquidation of debts or differences is effected by a *bill of exchange*. The *Stock-Exchange* business consists in a species of betting on the price of stocks at a future day. Persons possessed of no property in the funds have thus contracted for the sale of stock; and the business is generally settled (without any actual purchase or transfer of stocks) by A paying to B, or receiving from him, the difference between the current price of the stock on the day appointed and the price bargained for. The buyer, on these occasions, is called a *bull*, and the seller a *bear*. As neither party can be compelled by law to implement these bargains, their sense of honour, and the loss of future credit which attends a breach of contract, are the principles by which the business is supported. When a person declines to pay his loss, he is called a *lame duck*, and dare never afterwards appear in Exchange-alley.

Murder of Mr. Weare, 1823. Few

domestic events have made a greater impression for the time on the public mind than this murder in 1823, and the case of Mr. Fauntleroy in the following year. The body of a professed gambler, named Weare, was found in a pond near Elstree, Herts, with marks of violence upon it; and as the person in question had recently won a large sum of money from one of his own fraternity, named Thurtell, the latter was arraigned for the murder, and after one of the most interesting trials on record before Mr. Justice Park, found guilty. It was clearly, though principally with circumstantial evidence, shown that Thurtell had villainously decoyed his friend into Gill's-hill-lane, a solitary place in the parish of Aldenham, and there assassinated him.

Expedition to the North Pole, 1824. Various attempts have been made to discover whether or not a north-west passage exists from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, the earliest in 1607; but the first expedition fitted out by our government was that of 1773, conducted by captain Phipps. As no success had attended any, the matter was abandoned for nearly half a century, when in 1818, two parties were sent out, one under captain John Ross, and the other under captain Buchan, which were alike unproductive of the desired information. Captain Parry next ventured upon similar expeditions 1819, 1821, and 1824. It is needless to say that neither of these voyages was attended with better success. Captain Parry, in 1824, was in the *Hecla*, and accompanied by the *Fury*, commanded by lieutenant Hoppner. By the end of September the ships had got to the entrance of Prince Regent's Inlet, in the full hopes of a secure winter-harbour, and of a successful progress in the spring. The winter was now fast setting in, and on reaching Fort Bower the vessels became surrounded with what is termed young ice. The winter was a mild one for these arctic regions, the thermometer never exceeding forty-four degrees below zero, whereas in the cap-

tain's first voyage, it was at fifty-five. Reading, music, and plays, formed the chief in-door amusements; and a masquerade was got up once a fortnight, on board one or other of the ships: in the day, bear-hunting kept the men in exercise, while grouse were so abundant as to give plenty of sport to the officers, and food to the men. During this period, the title of a newspaper could be barely read at noon-day on deck, so dense and gloomy was the atmosphere; but as the spring of 1825 advanced, the light so much increased as to allow of excursions in every direction, during which very curious specimens of animal, vegetable, and mineral productions were collected. The summer began on the 6th of June, and the ice thawed sufficiently to enable the vessels to leave Fort Bower; but in attempting to explore the coast in a southward direction, the *Fury* was destroyed by an ice-berg, so that the *Hecla* made the best of her way to England, with the crews of both ships. On the subject of magnetic attraction, some valuable discoveries were made in this expedition; and it was satisfactorily proved that, in proportion to the degree of heat which the human body had by various means acquired, (especially by the warm-bath) the longer it could remain exposed to the severity of cold without injury. Amongst a multitude of observations connected with natural philosophy, the vast celerity with which sound travels in these regions may be noticed; the ordinary pitch of the human voice being often distinctly heard at the distance of two miles from the speaker.

Execution of Mr. Fauntleroy, 1824. He was a member of a banking-house in London, and had committed forgeries to a vast extent on the bank of England. The public appeared to take an unusual interest in his case; and perhaps his resigned demeanour throughout his trial, and during the awful preparations for his ignominious death, occasioned a feeling towards him, which, in a great commercial country, could scarcely be indulged withou

injury to the community. Fauntleroy found himself a partner in an insolvent banking-house, and resolved to prevent its fall; but he did not see that the honest would have answered his purpose better than an opposite course. He was well educated, and moreover, was not driven by hunger and nakedness to the commission of crime, but was tempted to it by pride, and a false notion of station. All will do well, and the young more especially, to bear in mind one of the last observations of this unhappy man. 'It was natural for me,' said he, 'to wish to pass through life with credit, and to maintain the position of my father; but I sought the honour of men, and a poor, unsatisfactory bauble it is. To acquire estimation and reputation here, we must become subservient, and conform to a world wholly made up of error. The pride of winning a few little months' esteem from mortals has overthrown me.'

Death of the King and Queen of the Sandwich-isles, 1824. In the summer of this year these personages arrived in England from Owhyhee, accompanied by many semi-barbaric official characters, and were greatly delighted with all they saw in London. Before, however, they could be presented at court, both the king and queen were seized with measles; and death soon put a period to their existence. Their remains, after lying some time in St. Martin's church, were sent back for interment to their native land.

New London Bridge begun, 1824. Mr. Rennie was the architect, and the contract for building was 506,000*l.*, not to include the formation of arched approaches, nor the expense of removing the old bridge. It is of Haytor granite, and has five noble arches.

Whiteboy Riots in Ireland, 1828. The Queen's County, Carlow, and Kilkenny, were the chief scenes of the disgraceful transactions so called, which which were put down eventually by the strong arm of the military. The whiteboys, under a mere nominal leader, who had various names, wore

their shirts over their other clothing, and thus obtained their title. They robbed and murdered in every direction: warnings were usually given to the parties that were to be visited, though, in many instances, men who had rendered themselves obnoxious to the insurgents by obeying the established laws, suddenly disappeared, and were never heard of afterwards.

The Inundation of Moray, 1829.

Sir Thomas Lauder has given an interesting account of the flood which visited the counties of Nairne, Elgin, and Banff, in August 1829, after a summer of unusual drought. It would seem that there were two or three shocks of earthquake, a vivid aurora borealis, windy and boisterous weather, and ultimately a fall of rain partaking of the character of waterspouts; while outbursts of subterranean water took place in the mountains of Broemar, from fissures more than thirty yards in breadth. Mr. Grant was passing the hill of Tomanurd, and observed a quaking of the earth, and then the spouting forth of an immense column of water, which tossed around vast quantities of gravel, sometimes ceased, and again burst out, like a geyser, with renewed energy, tearing up whole banks of earth, and hurling them to the distance of 300 yards. The water was quite transparent, and had so much the appearance of boiling, that Mr. Grant at first imagined it must be warm. A few instances of the devastation this inundation occasioned will best illustrate so remarkable an occurrence. The river Don back suddenly swelling destroyed many farms, carrying away thirty acres at a time. At one spot was a bank 100 feet high, covered with birch and alder wood. The soil being spongy, became overloaded with moisture imbibed from the rain, and with all its trees was hurled down the river like a floating island. While William Macdonald stood astonished to behold a portion of his farm thus sailing off to the ocean, a large piece of land rent itself away from its native hill, and

descended at once, with a whole grove of trees on it, to the river. Mr. Suter's house, at Moy, was filled on the night of the 3rd with women and children, who had been driven from their cottages; the men being actively employed at the risk of their lives, in saving others. There was great anxiety felt for the fate of those who had not yet escaped from their houses, particularly for a family named Kerr, and for that of one Sandy Smith, commonly called Funns. At seven in the morning of the 4th, Mr. Suter found his servant, Alexander Kerr, standing on a spot he had not left during the night, gazing towards the house of his parents, and weeping in great agony; for their rescue appeared utterly impossible. Mr. Suter tried to comfort him; but while he spoke, the whole gable of Kerr's dwelling gave way, and fell into the raging current. With a telescope, a hand was seen working through the thatch of an adjoining roof. A head soon appeared; and at last Kerr's whole frame emerged, and he began to draw out his wife and niece. Clinging to one another, they crawled along the roof, and succeeded in reaching a small speck of ground, whence, at great risk, a boat rescued them. It was now observed, through the telescope, that Funns and his family had been driven from their dwelling, and were all huddled together on a spot of ground a few feet square. Above a score of sheep were standing round, or wading through the shallows: three cows, and a small horse, were also grouped with the family. About seven in the evening, when the waters were subsiding, a boat was launched with four of the most skilful rowers, into the wide inundation; and, after considerable labour, owing to the many conflicting currents, the whole party was brought safe to land.

Some people were standing on the bridge of Nethey, watching the flood, when, all at once, the enormous mass of timber building, comprising the saw-mill of Straanbeg, about 500 yards above, moved bodily off, steadily and

magnificently, without a plank being dislodged. It was tremendous—it was awful—to see it advancing on the bridge. The people shuddered, some moved quickly away, and others instinctively grasped the parapet, to prepare for the shock; it was already within 100 yards of them,—when it struck upon a bulwark, went to pieces with a fearful crash, and spread itself, a wreck, over the surface of the stream. The bridge of Curr, over the Spey, a single arch of sixty-five feet span, had its southern abutment undermined. The moment the support gave way, the force of the water was so great, that it made the arch spring fifteen feet into the air. While in the act of ascending, it maintained its perfect semicircular form; but as it descended, its ends came together. Mr. Brown of Rothes, observing the water was five feet high against the walls of a farm-house, tenanted by widow Riach, and that it was evident the gable must soon fall, hurried off to procure a boat, and at length succeeded in saving the women of that house. The boat then returned for the men, and as before, pushed behind some intervening buildings. While the spectators were anxiously looking for its reappearance, the gable gave way, and carried half the building with it. When the tremendous splash of water, and cloud of dust had cleared away, the little bark, to the unspeakable joy of the beholders, was seen through the gap in the building with the remainder of the family seated in it, who were soon happily out of the reach of danger.

The bridge over the Spey at Fochabers consisted of four arches. The view from it, on the morning of the 4th, presented one vast expanse of dark brown water, from the foot of the hill of Benagen to the sea; about ten miles in length, and two miles broad. The surface was varied only by floating wrecks, or by the tops of trees, or roofs of houses, to which, in more than one instance, the miserable inhabitants were seen clinging, while boats were

plying about for their relief. By eight o'clock the flood was high upon the bridge, which, however, stood firm, though the water raged furiously round the piers. Crowds of people had been on it, watching the river, during the morning; but few persons were there after twelve, when fissures, no wider than the cut of a sword, suddenly opened on either side of them. With a cry of alarm they sprang forward and escaped, when down went the whole mass of the two arches next the bank, and not a vestige of the fallen fragments was to be seen. The scene for miles along the beach was at once animated and terrible. Crowds were employed in trying to save the wood and other portions of wreck, with which the heavy rolling tide was loaded; whilst the margin of the sea was strewn with the carcasses of domestic animals, and with millions of dead hares and rabbits. Below Orton, the cottage of an industrious man, John Geddes, had entirely escaped the floods of former years. Alarmed at the rapid rise of the river, people of other cottages crowded, as night fell, to that of John Geddes, firmly believing they should be perfectly safe in it. There nine men and women, and four children, sat shivering over the fire, in their wet garments. The faggots were heaped high, and they began to forget their fears, when Geddes and another went out, and saw the water growing terrible. 'Ye're all very merry, sirs,' said he, as he went in, 'but ye'll no be so lang. Ye had better stir your stumps, and put things out of the way, and look to your own safety.' 'The words were hardly out of my mouth,' his account continues, 'when in came the river upon us. We lifted the meal-chest, and put the wife and her baby, and the bairnies, into the bed; and the rest got upon chests and tables. We put the fire on the girdle, hung the girdle on the crook in the chimney, and stuck the lamp upon the wall. But the water soon drowned out the fire, and rose into the bed. I then put two chairs in the bed, and

the wife sat upon them with the little ones in her lap; but the water soon got up to them there. Then I cut the ceiling above the bed, put a door between the two chair backs, laid a bed on the door, set the wife and little ones above that, and then went and held the door firm with my feet, having an axe ready to cut the house roof in case of need. We were long in this way, and I cheered them the best I could, and told them the hours every now and then by my watch, which I hung up in my sight; but the water rose and rose till about two o'clock, when it drowned out the lamp. There was then a groan and a cry, that there was nothing for us now but death.' Voices, however, were soon after heard without; and boats having reached the building, the whole of the inhabitants were eventually conveyed to a place of safety.

Catholic Emancipation granted, 1829, under the auspices of the duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel. The penalties and disabilities imposed on certain classes dissenting from the doctrine and discipline of the church of England, have been gradually declining for more than a century; so that little remains of that penal code which interdicted to many, not only the enjoyment of their civil immunities, but even the free disposal of their property. The privileges granted in 1829 to the Catholics were ample, and could only have been so long withheld on the plea of political necessity. Perhaps that necessity no longer exists; and certainly if the pope, as head of the Romish hierarchy, has not now the power of dissolving oaths subversive of his temporal power in the Christian church, it no longer does exist. On the mere ground of religious opinion, we could not, in strict justice, exclude the Roman Catholics from political rights, while Socinians are admitted to them without scruple or question. It is to the great credit of the catholic nobility and gentry of England, that they have on every occasion of popular excitement during recent years, set an

admirable example of loyalty to their king; while, in the great subscriptions raised in periods of public distress, their munificence has been as prominent as that of any other class in the state. If the English catholics honestly, and without mental reservation, perform the duties of subjects, they have an especial claim to our sympathy (notwithstanding their addiction to unfair methods of gaining proselytes), when we reflect that we are directly descended from them as a church,—that

we adopt a liturgy translated almost verbally from their ritual,—that we advocate their notions as respects an apostolic priesthood, invested with the power of absolving sins, and of giving effect to human ceremonies by its consecration and its rank,—and, lastly, that we admit, without reordination, to be partakers of all the privileges of the clergy of our own church, such as, having been appointed to the ministry by papal authority, may have publicly recanted their supererogatory tenets.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS.

Death of Napoleon Buonaparte, 1821. See his Life.

Empire of Brazil founded, 1822. This country was first discovered by Americus Vespuccio; but the Portuguese did not plant it until fifty years afterwards, 1549, when they founded the city of St. Salvador. Till the year 1580, they had full possession of all the territory between the rivers Amazon and Plata; but when Sebastian of Portugal had lost his life in his Moorish expedition, and Portugal had been added to Spain, Brazil became a Spanish possession. Under these circumstances, the colony was first assailed by the Dutch, who had thrown off the yoke of Spain; and the whole country would have fallen to them, but for the spirited conduct of the archbishop, who, at the head of a body of monks, repelled the invaders. They, however, established themselves in several of the captaincies, as the provinces are called, and were not finally driven out until 1654. In 1661 the Dutch government, for eight tons of gold, relinquished their interest in Brazil to the Portuguese for ever; and the country continued attached to Portugal until 1822. The whole continent of South America, with the exception of Brazil, then belonged to Spain; but for some years, and particularly when Europe was engaged with the war of the French revolution, the ties between the colonies and the mother countries had been gradually dissolving. John VI., on account of

the invasion of Portugal by the French, fled for a time to Brazil, as has been shown; and nothing was wanting but such a demonstration of home weakness, to induce the colony to assert its independence. A revolution, therefore, was effected in 1822, and Brazil being separated for ever from Portugal, Don Pedro, his father's regent, was declared emperor. Brazil occupies nearly the whole eastern coast of South America, and is equal in size to all Europe; being 2000 miles long, and 1000 wide. It is a vast and fruitful plain, having mountains able to be cultivated to their summits; and the produce of cotton, sugar, gold, and precious stones, is uniformly very great.

The Spanish Settlements in South America independent, 1824. From what has been said of Brazil, it will be easily understood how these colonies could one by one assert their freedom. The Caraccas in 1810, and Venezuela in 1811 (now portions of Columbia), led the way; and various contests arose in the respective states, before the form of government could be settled. Bolivar, an active general, settled the division of *Columbia*, and was named dictator: he also liberated *Peru*, the ancient seat of the Incas; and the people have called Upper Peru Bolivia, in his honour. *Chili* is the third important republic, containing valuable gold and copper mines in its long and narrow tract of land; *La Plata*, the fourth, reaching nearly across the continent, from the Andes

to the Atlantic, and having considerable plains called pampas, covered with luxuriant herbage, on which vast herds of cattle are continually grazing; and *Paraguay*, the fifth, and smallest, which is despotically ruled by Dr. Francia, of whom extraordinary accounts have occasionally reached us. *Guiana*, on the north-east coast, is divided amongst the English, the Dutch, and the French; *Patagonia* in the south, and the island of *Terra del Fuego*, are inhabited by aboriginal tribes; those of the former being remarkably tall and strong, and those of the island especially diminutive and weakly. The Spanish colony of *Mexico*, in North America, revolted with its southern neighbours; and in 1822 an enterprising leader, named Iturbide, was elected emperor. A counter-revolution, however, expelled him; and he was shot on landing in disguise at Solo Moreno. Mexico is now a federative republic; and *Guatemala*, north of Darien, has separated from it, and assumed the title of Central America. The latter contains Honduras (whence our mahogany comes), and the great lake of Nicaragua. The wealth of Mexico itself arises from its silver-mines, which only forty years ago yielded five millions sterling annually.

Succession War in Portugal, 1826. When John VI. died, Pedro, his son, emperor of Brazil, as if possessed of the Portuguese throne, abdicated it formally in favour of his daughter, whom, to avoid contest, he betrothed to his brother Don Miguel. A powerful party in the state, however, resolved on making Miguel king in his own right; but a British expedition sailed to prevent a rising in his favour, and it was only after the English troops had quitted Portugal, 1828, that his supporters were enabled to effect their design. Upon his assumption of the royal dignity, some of the European states acknowledged him, but England and others did not; and he remained in possession of the sovereignty until 1831. In April of that

year, his brother, Don Pedro, was compelled, by a revolution, to abdicate the throne of Brazil in favour of his son; when, coming to England, he planned a rising of such of the Portuguese as were in his favour, of whom he agreed to take the head. Landing at Oporto, which had declared for him while the coast was closely watched by an English vessel or two under Captain Napier, Pedro was shut up by his brother's blockade for many months, and more than once it was expected that neither the provisions would hold out, nor that the health of the besieged would endure much longer. At last, however, the want of resources brought on divided counsels in the army of Miguel; and he was compelled to enter into a compromise with his brother, to the effect that he should quit Portugal unharmed, and reside henceforth in some other state. This convention was settled at Evoramonte, in May 1834; and Don Miguel retired to Genoa. The daughter of Don Pedro, Maria II., had no sooner been thus invested at the age of fifteen with sovereign power, than her father, who had assumed the title of duke of Braganza, was seized with illness, and died in September of the same year, at the age of thirty-six.

Suppression of the Janizaries. The Turkish sultan, Amurath I. formed a body guard, 1361, out of the captives made during his irruption into the provinces of the Danube, giving them the name of *jenitcheri*, or new soldiers. In time, this guard became an important portion of the Turkish army, and composed the only regular and effective infantry of the empire, being increased in 1800 to 115,000, by the annual incorporation of a stated portion of all prisoners of war. Such was the power of the Janizary leaders at last, that the present sultan, Mahmoud, resolved on reforming the corps, 1826, and Egyptian officers were chosen to instruct the men in what was believed to be an ancient system of Mahometan tactics. No opposition was made at first to the innovation;

but the moment the real state of the fact was apprehended, the voice of mutiny sounded loud and fiercely, and a rebellion of the corps ensued. The issue was that 20,000 janizaries fell in a subsequent contest; and Mahmoud was at once stamped with a character of fearless and intrepid energy, for having crushed, apparently for ever, the dictatorial authority of this turbulent soldiery.

Battle of Navarino, 1827. A remnant of the ancient Greeks had always existed on the classic soil of the Peloponnesus, notwithstanding the possession of the country by the Turks; but, from the long-continued oppressions of their hard task-masters, the people had become slaves in mind as well as body, and few instances were until lately to be found amongst them of that high-souled class, which feels for the degradation of its country, and breathes fervent and perpetual prayers for its freedom. The whole remnant, however, was deeply agitated by the severity of the Turks to the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople, in 1821; and his death being followed by a massacre of the Greeks in various parts of the empire, the Morea rose against the Ottoman authorities on the first of May. In a few months, Athens and other considerable towns were in the hands of the insurgents, and a war of extermination commenced, so terrible, that the sovereigns of the more enlightened portion of Europe at length attempted to mediate. It was high time to interfere, when one party roasted their prisoners alive, and the other, in retaliation, empaled theirs; and in July 1827 a treaty for the pacification of Greece was signed in London, by England, France, and Russia. As the Turks paid little attention to this arrangement, the combined squadrons of the English (under admiral Codrington), Russians, and French, sailed towards the Levant, with a view to force them out of the Morea. The Turkish and Egyptian fleets then lay off the bay of Navarino; but entering it upon seeing the advance of the

allies, they took up, without further ceremony, a hostile position, and were followed by three squadrons in succession.

Little communication took place between the allied and Turkish fleets, though the Dartmouth had twice carried the terms proposed by the British to Ibrahim Pacha, and as often returned with an evasive answer, implying a contempt for their prowess, and daring them to do their worst. The Asia (Codrington's ship), anchored in the bay close abreast of the ship of the Capitan-Bey, or Turkish admiral; and the other vessels having taken up their stations, it was strictly enjoined that no gun should be fired without the English admiral's signal, unless in return for shots fired by the Turkish fleet. Each ship was to anchor with springs on her cables, if time allowed; and the orders concluded with the memorable words of Nelson, 'No captain can do very wrong, who places his ship alongside of an enemy.' The Dartmouth having sent a boat, commanded by lieutenant Fitzroy, to request the fireship to remove, a fire of musketry ensued from the latter, killing the boat officer and several men. This brought on a return of small arms from the Dartmouth and Syrene. Captain Davis, of the Rose, having witnessed the firing of the Turkish vessel, went in one of his boats to assist that of the Dartmouth; and the crew of these two boats were in the act of climbing up the sides of the fireship, when she instantly exploded with a tremendous concussion, blowing the men into the water, and killing and disabling several in the boats close alongside. An Egyptian double-banked frigate at the same moment poured a broadside into a British ship, and in a few seconds more the contest became general.

The cannonade was one uninterrupted crash, louder than any thunder, and so continued for nearly four hours, a fireship, of which the Turks had a vast number in the bay, bursting every

now and then, and committing horrible devastation, both amongst the infidels and the allies. It was observed that the Egyptian vessels were over-crowded with sailors, active brawny fellows, wearing turbans, and having bare legs; and, from the close fighting of the ships, it often happened that men were struck dead on both sides without a wound, from the concussion which the firing of so many large pieces occasioned. Daylight having disappeared, the action ceased; and on the next morning the Turks, with perfectly new views of the British naval prowess, consented to all the demands of the allies. By this almost unauthorized contest, October 20, 1827, in which the French acted with the spirit of English sailors, the freedom of Greece was secured. The Turks, however, were too much enraged against their natural enemies, the Russians, to allow the matter to end here: in the following Spring a large army was sent against them; but in 1829 the Czar was every where successful, and the sultan was forced to consent to terms of peace, almost at the gates of Constantinople.

The Greeks were left to settle their own plan of government; but it was scarcely to be expected that a race, degraded by centuries of bondage, should be prepared to act, so suddenly after their emancipation, with any great share of judgment. The consequences were discontent, rebellion, and the murder of their chief governor, Count Capod'Istrias. The European sovereigns, therefore, compelled them to receive a ruler from one of the established monarchies; and Otho, son of the king of Bavaria, became their king in 1833. The new state of Greece comprehends the ancient Peloponnesus, with Attica and Thebes, as far south as the gulfs of Arta and Volo, and the isles of Negropont, Hydra, and the Cyclades; having a total population of 800,000 souls. Athens is the new capital: the chief modern towns are Tripolizza, Napoli di Romania, Navarino (Nes-

tor's sandy kingdom of Pylos), Patra, and Missolonghi, where lord Byron died.

France under Louis XVIII. and Charles X. 1814 to 1830. Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., was restored to the throne of his ancestors, on the removal of Buonaparte to Elbe, 1814; but in the following year he was compelled to relinquish his dignity, upon the return of the enemy of his house. The decisive contest of Waterloo, however, re-established him in 1815; and although many disturbances occurred in the early part of his reign, the remainder of it was comparatively peaceful. It was in 1820 that the duc de Berri, the king's nephew, was assassinated on coming out of the opera-house, by one Louvet, who gloried in what he termed his attempt to put an end to the Bourbon race. On the outbreak of the liberals in Spain, 1823, the duc d'Angoulême was sent thither to deliver Ferdinand VII. from their domination; and he succeeded in suppressing the popular party. The death of Louis occurred in 1824; and he was deservedly regretted as an enlightened and paternal monarch. The count d'Artois succeeded his brother, as *Charles X.* It was Charles's second son, the duc de Berri, who had been murdered. The inclination of Charles to restore the ancient regime, and especially his re-establishment of the law of primogeniture, which gives to the eldest son the right of inheritance to his father's landed property, instantly raised him enemies: liberty and equality had been too long the watchwords of the nation to bear so manifest a check; and when the minister Peyronnet attempted to shackle the press, the popular discontent was openly evinced. A new cabinet of noted royalists being formed under Prince Polignac, various attempts were made to induce the king to dismiss it; but when there issued forth three ordinances, signed by its members, the first abolishing the freedom of the press, the second dismissing the chamber of deputies

before it had been formally assembled, and the third altering the laws of election, the public indignation knew no bounds. The ministers hoped, at this juncture, to turn the minds of the people to foreign affairs: the dey of Algiers had insulted the French consul, and having been driven out by the troops sent over to avenge the injury, Algiers became a French settlement. But domestic politics were, as they had long been, the darling business of the people; and when the police attempted on the 25th of July, 1830, to destroy the printing-presses of some obnoxious journalists in Paris, the mob commenced a fierce attack upon the agents of government. As soldiers were called to strengthen the civil power, the populace barricaded the streets; and these being joined by the students of the Polytechnic school, and even some troops of the line, the national guards, with marshal Marmont at their head, were compelled to evacuate the city. By the third day of the insurrection, king Charles was satisfied that the nation would no longer regard him as its ruler, and retired to Rambouillet; whereupon the duke of Orleans was made lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and on the 9th of August, on signing the charter of a free constitution, was raised to the dignity of king, not of France, but of the French.

Spain under Ferdinand VII. 1808 to 1833. The education of this prince had been conducted by the canon Ecoiquiz, who took subsequently a prominent part in delivering his pupil from the thralldom of Godoy, his father's minister. So sickly was Ferdinand as a child, that it was not supposed he would ever see manhood: he, however, rapidly gained strength from the period of fourteen, and, notwithstanding the seclusion in which he had been kept by his mother, displayed himself an accomplished, though somewhat diffident, personage at twenty. It has been shown that Napoleon, after keeping him a sort of prisoner six years,

restored him to the throne which his father had abdicated in his favour, 1814; in March of that year he left Valençay, and after an enquiring visit to Saragossa and Valentia, to sound the opinions of his subjects, entered Madrid in May. There were now two very opposite factions in Spain, the liberals who scarcely favoured monarchy, and the absolutists, who were for a restoration of the absolute power of the sovereign: the former consisted of displaced soldiery and a few adherents amongst the nobles, and the latter of the mass of the nobility, clergy, and lower orders. The king's first act was to annul the constitution proclaimed at Cadiz in 1812 by the then Cortes, or parliament, and he put down with rigour the consequent military insurrections of Porlier and others; but when the constitution was again declared in the isle of Leon, near Cadiz, 1820, by colonels Quiroga and Riego, Ferdinand was induced to swear adherence thereto. For two years the leading parties concealed their mutual hatred, though an outbreak on the side of the liberals would frequently occasion a combination of the absolutists to restore the old system of government; the latter could ill bear the insolent demeanour of Mina, and other constitutional generals, who scrupled not to glory in the overthrow of the ancient institutions, and constantly laboured to disseminate levelling principles. At length the cortes, under the liberal influence, having divided Spain into eight military districts, with a view to overawe the absolutists, the royalists took up arms: and while the curate Merino (since so celebrated) tore down the stone of the constitution at Salvatierra, at the head of 800 men, Quesada organized a royalist force in the Basque provinces, and Maranon, called the Trappist, because he only threw off the habit of La Trappe to act as a leader, took the Seo de Urgel (the Urgellum of the Romans), and established therein a regency, 1822, which defied the power of the cortes

until February 1823, when Mina recaptured the place, and, with savage ferocity, put to death 600 of its bravest defenders.

It was early in 1823 that Louis XVIII. sent troops into Spain under the duc d'Angouleme, to deliver Ferdinand from the slavery in which he was kept by a factious party. The cortes, followed by Ferdinand, removed hereupon to Seville, and when the French had entered Madrid, where they were joyfully received, the cortes proceeded to Cadiz. Here that assembly declared the king in a state of incapacity, because he refused to follow them further than Seville; whereon he was induced to join them, and patiently to wait until the French in September laid siege to Cadiz. The king was allowed to confer with the duc d'Angouleme, after the bombardment of the city; and the French troops having got possession of the place in October, the principal ministers and members of the cortes fled first to Gibraltar, and thence to England. The king, on his return to Madrid, adopted the same line of policy as that which had marked his first assumption of power: the absolutists and liberals took their stations as before, the former having his especial notice, and their opponents being occupied in the usual plans for the restoration of the constitution. But matters of a more private nature now began to interest the monarch. He had lost three wives, and had yet no issue; and by his union with his fourth, his own niece, Maria Christina, daughter of Francis, king of Sicily, he had only a daughter, who, by the salique law, could not reign. A party was not wanting to aid the queen's wish that her daughter should succeed, though to the prejudice of Ferdinand's next brother, Don Carlos, who was a general favourite with the absolutists; and the point was carried through the king's favourite minister, Grijalva, who, after accompanying him in his exile to Valençay, had gradually risen from a subordinate situation in the palace to

be keeper of the privy purse, and the principal private adviser of the monarch. Every thing from 1824 to 1830, even the forming of the ministers, was effected by his agency. On the 6th of April, 1830, it was announced in the Gazette that, by a law of Charles IV. (the pragmatic sanction, 1789), the regular succession, whether male or female, should be observed; and as the queen just after gave birth to a second daughter, Ferdinand, it is said with reluctance, assented to the exclusion of his brother from the succession. The king died 1833, aged forty-nine, thus leaving the terrible legacy to his country of a civil war, to which allusion will be hereafter made.

Portugal under John VI. 1816 to 1826. Before the return of king John from Brazil, his people had formed a constitutional junta, 1820; he arrived in Lisbon, 1821; and in 1822 he took the oath to the constitution. In 1821 a revolution broke out in the colony which the king had just left, and in 1822 the monarch was astonished to hear that it had declared itself independent of the mother-country, with his son Pedro as emperor. Although Don Pedro refused both to see the messenger sent by his father, and to read the letters of which he was the bearer, when he came to Rio to treat about a reunion, king John thought it wise to acknowledge the independence of Brazil soon after. In 1823, Don Miguel, the second son of the king, when commander-in-chief of the army, declared the constitution null and void, and was supported by his father's suppression of the same, after the lapse of a few weeks; but when the prince took upon himself to make several arbitrary arrests of freemasons, &c., the king took shelter on board a British ship, and issued a decree depriving him of office. Don Miguel, on this, quitted Portugal for France. In 1824 king John re-established the ancient constitution, convoking the cortes of the three orders of the state; and died aged fifty-nine, 1826.

Algers made a French Settlement, 1830. General Bourmont headed the troops sent to punish the dey for having

struck the French consul; and when Algiers was taken, the dey and his family sought refuge in Italy.

EMINENT PERSONS.

Sir Walter Scott, the most successful of modern authors, was son of a writer to the signet, and born at Edinburgh 1771. Under Dr. Adam in the High school, and at the university of his native city, he prepared for the law, being admitted to the bar at twenty-one. His success, however, as an advocate, was indifferent; and having a turn for descriptive writing, and a taste for the legendary lore of his country, his leisure hours were passed in collecting, both from oral tradition and from existing ballads, an abundance of the curious materials which subsequently formed the subjects of his poems and novels. He was made sheriff of Selkirkshire 1799, and had gradually become known to the world by his '*Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*,' '*Lay of the Last Minstrel*,' and '*Marmion*;' for the copyright of which he was known to have received unusually large sums from the booksellers.

In 1814 appeared an anonymous novel, called *Waverley*, in three months after which every one was inquiring the name of the author, and every one consequently bought the book. The only answer, however, that could be obtained was that a northern schoolmaster, who lived in utter seclusion, and was supposed to be an exile, had written it, and would write more: in proof of which, two novels were almost regularly sent forth into the world, under the cloak of the author of *Waverley*, each year, until 1831. King George IV., in admiration of the poetical powers of Mr. Scott, created him a baronet; in 1822 the poet acted as grand master of the ceremonies in receiving the monarch at Edinburgh; and, soon after, he was made one of the deputy-lieutenants of Roxburgh, where his estate of Abbotsford, on which he had expended 100,000*l.*, was situate. The life of Buonaparte was in progress from his pen in 1825, when

Messrs. Constable, his publishers, became bankrupt; and as Sir Walter had been in the habit of drawing bills at long dates upon them, for the payment of the copyrights of his works, and had been occasionally accommodated with their acceptances, in reference to works not yet written, he considered it a matter of gratitude to give his name to other obligations in their behalf, and was consequently declared a partner. He now openly acknowledged himself author of the *Waverley novels*, and at fifty-five sat down to redeem, if possible, a debt amounting to more than 100,000*l.* No less than 50,000*l.* were raised by such means in five years. But unwearied application compelled Sir Walter to desist from his labours in a way which, though expected by all his friends, was very generally lamented: a paralytic seizure, slight in its first effects, arrested his hand, and his physicians advised a residence for a while in Italy. The king, with his usual consideration, allowed him to be carried thither in the ship of war *Barham*; but even a sight of classic Rome, and the honours paid to him there, failed to give him pleasure: he felt that he was dying, even in the capitol, and desired fervently to return to his own land. On his arrival in London, he was nearly in a state of insensibility; and although he sufficiently recovered, to express his hope that he might expire at Abbotsford, and raised himself in the carriage when he reached the spot which could first give him a view of his beloved abode, he had relapsed again into a stupor ere he came to the house. After lingering two months, with few intervals of consciousness, mortification ensued, and he died September 21, 1832, aged sixty-one.

The literary character of Scott rests exclusively upon his power of combining and embellishing past events,

and his skill in painting human nature. Whether he writes in verse or in prose, the same magician is still at work, calling from the tombs the identical heroes of past days, or delineating with the pencil of truth the characters of every day life. Although his poetry is deficient in the imagination requisite to claim for the author unqualified commendation, the Scottish people find a constant charm in his descriptions of local scenery and habits, into which they affirm none but themselves can enter, and which they extol, as passing in sublimity any thing in other authors. As an English novel-writer, Sir Walter Scott claims, without doubt, the highest place. He was the founder of a new school in literature; and his skilful pen has mingled history in such a manner with romance, as to give a relish for researches into the annals of our own and other countries, which has already led to very beneficial consequences amongst the young. Like a writer of fiction, he paints his heroes rather as they ought to have been, than as they were; and for chivalry's sake, has attributed as much virtue as is due to the semi-barbaric middle ages. As such productions as the *Waverley* novels have their utility, we may assert as a truth, that the novels of Scott, while they have cheered many a vacant hour, have soothed many a weary, and guarded many a dangerous one. 'Pain and languor have fled before the magic spell, which has been enabled to transform the chamber of sleepless disease into the court, the camp, or the vine-clad cottage; and although such reading be not the prescribed remedy for sorrow, nor the authorized occupation of the chamber of sickness, yet that may be permitted as a palliative, which we know cannot act as a remedy, and that as an honest recreation which is not a worthy employment.'

Lord Byron, the most gifted poet of his day, was son of a captain in the guards, and succeeded his great uncle in his title, while a schoolboy, 1798. He was brought up in narrow circumstances and seclusion at Aberdeen, by

his mother, who had been deserted by her husband; and being very weakly when young, and deformed in one foot, he was allowed, until nearly ten, instead of going to any place of education, to rove upon the hills, that he might brace his limbs, a circumstance which, with his parent's peculiar temper, considerably influenced his future life. Both at Harrow and Cambridge, he displayed a great repugnance to discipline of every sort; and quitting the university at nineteen, he took up his abode at his hereditary seat, Newstead Abbey. Here his *Hours of Idleness* appeared in 1807; and the *Edinburgh Review* having unjustly criticized the performance, his *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* came forth, and, with much of the spirit of revenge, put down his assailant. Having greatly injured both fortune and health by early dissipation, he determined to travel; and in 1809, accompanied by his friend Mr. Hobbouse, proceeded by the south of Spain to the Mediterranean, Greece, and Turkey, of which tour his *Childe Harold* gives a sufficiently accurate account. This poem laid the foundation of his fame; the mere circumstance of being himself the hero, marked as the character is with wayward libertinism, and with a misanthropy consequent upon having exhausted every resource of earthly enjoyment, occasioned vast popularity; and the young lord was courted on all sides, and admired and admonished in turn by such in the fashionable world as declared an interest in his behalf. He now married the daughter of Sir Ralph Milbanke, but the careless system of splendour which succeeded his union, having dissipated a large portion of his wife's fortune, disputes ensued; and when the lady returned to her father's house, lord Byron quitted England 1816, a second time, and for ever. It was then that he wrote his 'Farewel,' one of the most pathetic and elegantly expressed valedictory productions in our tongue. He passed the Rhine to Venice, whence he sent for publication to England his *Manfred*,

Sardanapalus, Don Juan, and other works, remarkable for that licence of remark, misanthropy, and hatred of country, which must ever be a check upon their circulation. It was in the autumn of 1823, after visiting Paris, that the poet began to indulge his feelings towards the Greeks, who were struggling for independence. Landing at Cephalonia, he sent 12,000*l.* for the relief of Missolonghi; and arriving at that town soon after, he was received with every mark of honour that Grecian gratitude could devise. His presence, although it mitigated the ferocity with which the insurgents conducted the war, could not heal the dissensions of the leaders; and even when he raised a brigade of Salotes, and agreed to pay 500 of them out of his own purse, he was obliged to disband them for their mutinous conduct. So unexpected a state of things brought on the poet a fit of epilepsy; but although advised by his physician to quit Missolonghi for the healthy air of Zante, he refused, and wrote a letter to a friend, wherein is a passage indicative, one would readily suppose, of a singularly ambitious spirit: 'I cannot quit Greece,' he writes, 'while there is a chance of my being of utility. *There is a stake worth millions*; such as I am, and while I can stand at all, I must stand by the cause.' Whatever, however, were the ultimate hopes of lord Byron, either for himself or the Greeks, the cause was soon doomed to lose its champion; for acquiring a severe fever by an exposure to the wet, the poet died, aged thirty-six, on the 19th of April, 1824. No one can deny the praise of great genius to lord Byron; and as a pathetic poet he is almost without a rival. Selfishness, however, is eminently conspicuous in all he wrote; and, what is worse, scarcely one of his larger works is free from allusions and images highly offensive to decency, and corrupting to the youthful mind. The tone of raillery throughout his productions is but a flimsy veil to conceal gross profligacy of sen-

timent; and Byron could least of all men say there was 'no line which, dying, he should wish to blot.'

Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, who held the important office of secretary-at-war from 1812 until 1822, being the chief minister for England in continental affairs during the last years of Napoleon. He was an energetic and indefatigable statesman, though seldom popular amongst the middle and lower classes in the empire, on account of his attachment to ancient forms and institutions, and his marked dislike of the modern spirit of innovation. During a nervous illness, brought on by incessant application during the arduous session of 1824, he put a period to his existence at his seat, North Cray in Kent, in August of that year, at the age of fifty-five, having just before succeeded his father as marquis of Londonderry.

George Canning, son of an unfortunate literary man, after an education at Eton, and Christ-church, Oxford, obtained a seat in Parliament, through lord Lansdowne. The death of lord Castlereagh, 1824, placed him a second time in the office of foreign secretary; and on the decease of lord Liverpool, he was made premier, 1827. Being in ill health at this period, from a cold caught at the funeral of the duke of York, he was unable to bear the excitement which a very spirited opposition caused him; and in August of the same year he died, aged fifty-six. More inclined to shape his course to the spirit of the times than lord Castlereagh, and regarding expediency too often as right, Mr. Canning was applauded by a large party in the nation. As an orator, he was eloquent, and classically correct; and his satirical power was so irresistible, that it often insured him the victory. He wrote much in the periodicals of the day; and 'Elijah's Mantle,' on the death of Mr. Pitt, whose principles he had originally upheld, was long a popular specimen of his poetry.

John Scott, Earl of Eldon, and his brother, William lord Stowell, two

singular examples of the advantages which high talents possess over birth in a free country. They were sons of a worthy person engaged in the coal trade at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and being enabled by the aid of a friend to complete at Oxford the liberal education commenced at the freeschool of their native town, rose both of them to high rank in the law. William, the elder, becoming judge of the Consistory Court of London, and a baron, and John, the younger, lord high chancellor of England, and an earl. On raising the latter to the peerage, 1821, king George IV. commanded that, in the patent granting him the titles of Viscount Encombe, and Earl of Eldon, it should be recited, 'that his majesty conferred the same, in consideration of his profound knowledge of the laws of his country, and the distinguished ability and integrity which he has invariably evinced in administering them in his office of chancellor, during a period of nineteen years.' Lord Stowell died, aged ninety-one, 1836, and lord Eldon, aged eighty-six, 1837.

Thomas Lawrence, born at Bristol of humble parents, obtained the title of 'the wonderful boy of Devizes,' for painting the portraits of his father's customers, when he kept an inn in that town. At Bath, the young artist started on his own responsibility at fifteen; and being invited to London, on account of his success in guinea-portraits, he soon found himself superior to the class of cheap likeness-painters in the metropolis. His person and manners were attractive; and before he had reached his twentieth year, his reputation for ease and grace of head was fully established. Introduced to George IV., that monarch knighted him, and obtained his admission to the Royal Academy; and, says Mr. Allan Cunningham, 'though eminent painters lived when he commenced, and others equally eminent arose during his career, it cannot be said with truth that his ascendancy was ever in danger, or that a rival eclipsed his brightness.' The

same writer adds, that wealth fell upon him as rain through a sieve; gold poured upon him as it never poured upon painter either before or since; yet he was not only poor, he was embarrassed. He kept no splendid establishment, gave no expensive dinners: he exacted high prices from his sitters, and was paid large sums by engravers for leave to work from his pictures; yet he lived from hand to mouth and died in debt, 1830, aged sixty. Sir Thomas will long live in his female portraits, and in the natural ease wherewith he has endued his likenesses generally: he had, without an attempt to flatter, the art of giving an air of quality to all who consented to sit to him.

Frances Burney, afterwards known as Madame D'Arblay, was the talented author of 'Cecilia,' 'Evelina,' and other domestic novels of a superior class; and it was her merit to drive out a host of works, which, through the medium of circulating libraries, had spread mental poison about the country.

Samuel Coleridge, a poet and miscellaneous writer, was born at Bristol, educated at Christ's hospital and Cambridge, and after accompanying Sir Alexander Ball, governor of Malta, as secretary, dedicated himself wholly to literary pursuits. In conversational eloquence, Coleridge was unrivalled; and perhaps the soundest proofs of his original mode of thinking, superior to any thing in his published works, might be deduced from a well-digested register of his selected observations on men and things. His mind not bearing to be chained long to any one subject, all his productions are desultory. He died 1834, aged sixty-one, in the house of his amiable friend, Mr. Gillman, at Highgate.

Hannah More was daughter of a village schoolmaster at Stapleton, Gloucestershire; and the friendship of Dr. Stonhouse enabled her to open a seminary for young ladies at Bristol. At eighteen she produced her pastoral drama of 'The Search after Happiness,' at which period she had pupils in her

school older than herself. Its success, and the communications of Garrick, induced her to go on as an author; and her 'Sacred Dramas,' published in 1782, gained her the esteem of Dr. Johnson, and introduced her to a large circle of literary characters. Her 'Strictures on Female Education' induced the royal family to request she would frame some directions for the education of the princess Charlotte, which she accordingly did in 'Hints towards forming the Character of a young Princess;' and she was soon after enabled to give up her pupils to her sisters, and to enjoy the fruits of her labours. Her religious novel of 'Cœlebs,' 1809, attracted very general notice, and was translated into French and German: the masculine style of that work is very conspicuous, and bishop Porteus is said to have had a hand in its production. Her 'Essay on the Character and Writings of St. Paul,' written at seventy years of age, is perhaps her best, and certainly, under circumstances, an astonishing work. She died 1833, aged eighty-eight.

Carl Von Weber, born in Holstein of wealthy parents, early devoted himself to music. Haydn, and the abbé Vogler, author of that favourite air 'The Request,' were his instructors; and he was invited, on account of his rising celebrity, to direct the opera both at Prague and Dresden. His 'Der Freischütz' came out at Berlin 1821; and this opera so established his fame, that the emperor of Austria offered him an appointment at Vienna. He visited England to bring out his 'Oberon' at Covent Garden; but its success was by no means equal to *Der Freischütz*, which is generally allowed to be his best work. While in England, he was seized with symptoms of consumption, and died in London, aged forty, 1826. What is generally known as his 'last waltz' is said not to have been his production.

Henry Hunt, son of a Wiltshire agriculturist, quitted country affairs of one description for those of another;

and although he laboured to settle both with much zeal, he proved himself an incomparably better farmer than politician. That the spirit of reform displayed itself early in his breast, may be gathered from his mode of punishing an Enford peasant-boy, whom he saw beating a donkey unmercifully. He bought the animal of the fellow, and then soundly cudgelled him for ill-using his beast. Having parted with his paternal property, he came to the metropolis, and was soon known as a street orator; it being by no means unusual to see him haranguing a concourse of persons of the lowest grade, from the roof of a hackney-coach, or the balcony of a first-floor window. It is almost needless to state that 'reform' was his theme; and though more than once incarcerated for sedition, he eventually got into parliament. It was soon perceptible that Hunt the member was a changed man: his style of eloquence, if eloquence it could be called, was little adapted to the British senate: the restraints he was compelled to endure were harassing, and election-expenses, though they fell lightly upon him, still more so. Having, therefore, established himself as a maker of blacking, he found full leisure to pursue his business, when his constituents had failed to send him again as their representative; and he died 1834.

James Hogg, called the Ettrick shepherd, was born at Ettrick in Scotland, and was a keeper of sheep. After a boyhood of poverty, the poet in embryo found himself at length fourteen, and the proprietor of five shillings, with which he bought a fiddle! He had learned to read, and before eighteen, the life of Wallace, and the 'Gentle Shepherd of Ramsey,' had been perused by him with avidity. He was now resolved on writing ballads; and Walter Scott, when sheriff of Selkirk, encouraged him to publish. The shepherd having once turned author, poetry of all descriptions, with an occasional prose

production, issued from his pen. It is enough to say that Hogg was a man of great natural parts; and that his poem of 'The Queen's Wake,' and his prose work of 'The Shepherd's Calendar,' in which deep feeling is every where discernible, have fully established his fame. He died 1835.

Sir John Leicester, the greatest patron of the native school of painting England ever possessed, permitted the public, under only necessary limitations, to see his unrivalled collection of pictures at all times. He was created Baron de Tapley by George IV., and died, aged sixty-five, 1827.

Reginald Heber, educated at Oxford, gained great applause at nineteen, for his poem of 'Palestine.' He succeeded to his father's living and estate of Hodnet, Salop, married dean Shipley's daughter, and established his fame as a theologian by his Bampton Lectures. He next produced a life of Jeremy Taylor. He was soon after elected to the preachiership of Lincoln's-inn, the usual stepping-stone to preferment; and in 1823 he was appointed Bishop of Calcutta. In India he exerted himself greatly: with a field before him that might challenge the labours of an apostle, he entered upon it with the spirit of one: and short as his allotted time was, his visitations had embraced, at the period of his decease, almost the whole of his vast diocese. Being accustomed to use a cold bath before breakfast, he was in April 1826 found dead therein by his servant, being then in the forty-third year of his age. His *Journal*, published by his widow, is an extremely interesting book.

John Von Goethe, the German romantic poet, was son of a man of small fortune. The grand duke of Weimar induced him to settle at his court in 1775, and for fifty-seven years he remained there, acting for some time as prime minister, and always as a privy-councillor. The work which first raised his reputation was 'Gotz with the Iron Hand,' to which succeeded 'Werther;' and the Germans

still regard those and his 'Faust,' amongst the most talented productions in the world. The admirers of Goethe formed a sort of sect, over whom the influence of the poet was extraordinarily great. Napoleon visited him, and gave him the decoration of the legion of honour; and few men of rank or talent, whatever their nation, passed through Weimar, without paying their respects to him. He died, aged eighty-two, 1832.

T. R. Malthus, an English divine, and professor of history and political economy at Haileybury. In his 'Essay on the Principle of Population,' he put forth a doctrine, which necessarily brought upon him hostility of opinion in every shape; to the effect that the increase of human beings was a physical evil, and that means should be taken to mitigate it. He died 1834.

Combe, author of the poetical tale, called 'The Tour of Dr. Syntax,' was an unfortunate man, who wrote the work for his support, during an incarceration of twenty years in the king's bench prison. He had the merit of adapting his story to a series of prints, published by Ackermann in a magazine; and the author's own account of the matter is as follows. 'An etching was sent to me every month, and I composed a certain proportion of pages in verse. When the first print was sent to me, I did not know what would be the subject of the second; and in this manner the artist continued designing, and I continued writing, every month for two years, till a work containing nearly 10,000 lines was produced: the artist and the writer having no personal communication with, or knowledge of each other.' As a facile poetical narrative, free from license of every sort, it deserves much praise, and will probably outlive many more sterling efforts of the muse. Mr. Combe died 1823.

Captain Hugh Clapperton, son of a Scottish surgeon, accompanied Dr. Oudney, on his appointment as consul to Bornou, in Africa, 1823. The

British government had favoured several previous expeditions to this part of the globe, with the hope that something might be done towards the amelioration of the people, the abolition of the slave-trade, the advancement of geographical science, and the establishment of commercial exchanges. The excursion ended at Sackatoo, the capital of the Felatahs, one Bello being sultan; but while journeying towards that city, the consul was taken ill and died. Clapperton, however, resolved on proceeding alone to the chief city, and was escorted thither by 150 horsemen with drums and trumpets, whom Bello had sent out to welcome him. On his introduction to the sultan, he found him sitting without state upon a small carpet, between two pillars, which supported the thatched roof of a house, not unlike an English cottage. The pillars and the walls were painted blue and white, in the Moorish style; and by the side of the wall was a skreen, and on each side of it an arm-chair, supporting an iron lamp. The sultan bade him hearty welcome, asked a great many questions about Europe, and the prevailing religious distinctions, and whether the English were Nestorians or Socinians? to which, being taken somewhat out of his latitude, Clapperton bluntly replied, 'We are called Protestants.' 'But what are Protestants?' rejoined Bello. 'I attempted,' says our traveller, 'to explain this to him as well as I was able.' The sheikh of the koran was proceeding with other theological questions, but was put to a stop by the sailor's declaring himself not sufficiently versed in religious subtleties to resolve such knotty controversies. On receiving the presents which Clapperton had brought, Bello exclaimed, 'Every thing is wonderful; but you are the greatest curiosity of all!' and then added, 'what can I give that is most acceptable to the king of England?' 'I replied,' says Clapperton, 'the most acceptable service you can render to the king of England, is to co-operate with his

majesty in putting a stop to the slave-trade on the coast.' 'What,' said he, 'have you no slaves in England?' 'No: whenever a slave sets his foot in England, he is from that moment free!' 'What do you then for servants?' 'We hire them for a stated period, and give them regular wages.' 'God is great!' he exclaimed, 'you are a beautiful people.' He also appeared anxious to establish a friendly connexion with England, applying for the residence of a consul and a physician at Sackatoo. Clapperton thought this place the most populous town he had met with in all Africa; yet the date of its foundation is not further back than 1805. European articles find their way here, for the same traveller says, that provisions were repeatedly sent him from the sultan's table on pewter dishes with the London stamp; and one day he had meat served up in a white wash-hand basin of English manufacture. During his stay at Sackatoo, captain Clapperton collected some interesting information relative to the death of Mungo Park; and the sultan actually marked down the spot on his chart where his vessel was wrecked. Captain Clapperton thought it best to return to England at once, respecting the sultan's desire for the appointment of a new consul, together with a physician; and in April 1826 he was again at Sackatoo, according to the statement of Mr. James, a merchant residing on the African coast. Here ended all further information respecting the traveller, and two whole years had elapsed, when his servant, Richard Lander, accompanied by a black man of the name of Pascoe, made his appearance at Badagry, and stated that captain Clapperton had died of dysentery in April 1827 at Sackatoo, where he had been detained five months, in consequence of Bello's war with the sheikh of Bornou. The whole of the captain's journals were saved, and have been subsequently published. By the investigations of Denham, Oudney, and Clapperton,

much new information was gathered respecting the river Niger, and the kingdoms on its banks; but as neither of those travellers had traced it to the ocean, the place of its embouchure was left for future inquirers. That important discovery has since been made by Lander.

Thomas Hope, nephew of an opulent Dutch merchant, was a native of England, and after travelling early in the east, resided principally on his beautiful estate in Surrey, the Deepdene. The result of his observations was a novel of very high character, entitled '*Anastasius*; or, *Memoirs of a Modern Greek*;' and there are few books of the kind which contain passages so replete with eloquence, pathos, and nature. The style is much akin to that of Beckford; and the work, although indulging too much in pictures of human passion and depravity, is, as a whole, a classically elegant composition. Mr. Hope died 1831.

Bishop Hobart, a prelate of New York, was a man of very distinguished talent, and one of the greatest ornaments of the remnant of the English church in America. Unwearied in activity, and unwavering in principle, he devoted his life to the promotion of the interests of the church over which he presided. To her he dedicated the native strength of his mind, the treasures of his learning, and the powers of his eloquence; and some notion may be obtained of all these by a perusal of his discourses on the principal events and truths of the Redemption. He died 1830, aged fifty-four.

George Crabbe, the descriptive poet of humble life, was himself born of poor parents at Aldborough, Suffolk, and had to struggle with nearly actual starvation in his youth. Too delicate to adopt a rustic or even a surgical profession, he resolved on coming to London, with three borrowed pounds in his pocket, to subsist on what he might be able to gain by writing for the booksellers. No bookseller, however, would aid him: but upon applying by letter to Mr. Burke, that gentleman

charitably took him under his roof, and became his patron. Then did lord Thurlow, and others, who had turned a deaf ear to his earnest appeals, venture to befriend him too; while Mr. Dodsley, who had refused to have any thing to do with his poetry, now willingly published for him his '*Library*,' owned its talent, and foretold its success. The '*Village*' followed, and was equally popular; and upon his patron's introduction of him to the bishop of Norwich, the poet, notwithstanding his defective education, was ordained. Singular to relate, in little more than two years from the day of his quitting Aldborough a poor and deserted boy, Crabbe returned to that village a successful author; patronized and befriended by some of the leading characters in the kingdom; and a clergyman, with every prospect of preferment in the church. He was soon after made chaplain to the duke of Rutland, and had his abode in the princely halls of Belvoir castle, until lord Thurlow gave him a small benefice in Dorsetshire. For twenty-four years from this period he devoted himself almost exclusively to his clerical duties, his only publication during the time being '*The Newspaper*,' in 1787. In 1807, however, came forth '*The Parish Register*,' the success of which was very marked; and in his '*Borough*,' and '*Tales in Verse*,' which followed, there is not the author's characteristic propensity to paint the meaner miseries and vices of human nature. In 1813, soon after losing his amiable wife, his faithful partner for thirty years, he was happy to migrate to Trowbridge, Wilts, the living of which was given him by the young duke of Rutland. In 1819 came out his '*Tales of the Hall*,' for which he received 3000*l.* from Mr. Murray; and in 1832 he died, aged seventy-eight, endeared to his parishioners by a continued course of beneficence, pastoral attention, and unaffected urbanity.

Oberlin, of Strasburg, was appointed 1767, to the cure of Waldbach, in a high and sterile valley of Alsace. This valley, called Ban de la Roche, con-

tained an hundred families of the most uncivilized people in Europe, who knew little of agriculture, had no roads, and found scarcely wherewithal to support life. In a very few years, he induced this rude race to construct a road to Strasburg: even a bridge was at length built, and the ordinary results of intercourse between a poor and a wealthy, a rude and an intelligent community, were soon felt. The wretched cabins were converted into snug houses, wheel carriages became common, and arts of every kind began to flourish. To improve agriculture was his next attempt; and manuring, and other means of benefiting the soil, together with grafting, trenching, and planting, were soon brought to a degree of perfection, which astonished the poor rustics. He then became the *founder* of infant schools. Engaging with some friends to erect a building at his and their joint cost, he resolved on instructing the youngest of his flock in the principles of religion and morality, having discovered, as all do who pay attention to the developement of the human faculties, that evil habits begin much earlier than the world is accustomed to believe, and that the facility with which mature education may be conducted, mainly depends upon the impressions which the infant mind has received. The result was beneficial beyond his most sanguine expectations. As nothing was taught but of an useful nature, all Oberlin's rising flock bid fair to be good farmers and artisans; the sacred nature of an oath was fully impressed on their minds, and all that their benevolent friend could effect for ensuring their future religious and moral welfare, was done. At the period of his death in 1827, the good man saw the valley increased vastly in population, and agriculture every where thriving; a gratifying proof of what one man may effect, when resolutely fixed to his purpose.

William Cobbett, son of a poor farmer at Farnham, Surrey, after being sergeant in a militia regiment, devoted himself to politics. With this view,

he managed to establish a periodical work, entitled 'The Political Register;' and perhaps no production of the sort ever had so extensive a circulation for so long a period of time. Its style being especially suited to the capacity of the lower orders, the Register had a great effect in directing them on occasions of popular excitement; and so paramount became the author's influence, that he was at length returned to parliament. He, of course, espoused the 'cause of the people' on all occasions; and, although not endowed with the graces of an orator, he had a flow of words, a force of argument, and a coolness of demeanour, which astonished the house, even when he failed to carry his point. 'Shrewd, intemperate, presumptuous, careless of the truth of his representations, and indifferent to their consequences, provided they made an impression, he was,' says Mr. Robert Hall, 'well qualified by his faults, no less than by his talents, for the office he assumed,—to scatter delusion, to excite insurrection.' As a practical farmer he was celebrated, though rather too fond, it is said, of theory. He died, aged seventy, 1835.

Egerton, last Earl of Bridgewater, who died in 1829, placed 8000*l.* at the disposal of the president of the Royal Society, to be paid to such persons as he should appoint; each of such persons being bound to write, print, and publish, 1000 copies of a work on the power, wisdom, and goodness of God, as manifested in the creation. The president, with the advice of the archbishops and bishops, agreed on selecting eight men of talent for the work, and the lot fell upon the following: 1. *Whewell*, who took astronomy and general physics, considered with reference to natural theology; 2. *Buckland*, geology and mineralogy; 3. *Bell*, the human hand; 4. *Roget*, animal and vegetable physiology; 5. *Prout*, chemistry, meteorology, and the functions of digestion; 6. *Chalmers*, adaption of external nature to man's moral and intellectual constitution; 7. *Kidd*, the adaptation of external nature to man's

physical condition ; 8. *Kirby*, the history, habits, and instinct of animals.

Joseph Nollekins, famous as a British sculptor, who amassed a fortune only equalled by that of his contemporary, *Canova*, dying worth 200,000*l.*, 1823, aged eighty-five. His 'Venus with the sandal,' is considered his chef-d'œuvre as a whole figure ; but his celebrity arises from his busts.

Belzoni, born at Padua, was driven from home during the French invasion, and endeavoured to get a livelihood in London by feats of strength, which he exhibited at Astley's amphitheatre. He afterwards devoted himself to the search after antiquities ; and with that view visited Egypt, where he examined the pyramids, and found an entrance into one of those of Ghizeh. Having conveyed to his native Padua, as a present, two lion-headed statues of granite, he returned to England, to publish a narrative of his discoveries, and embarked, 1823, for the west coast of Africa, where, on reaching Benin, he was seized with dysentery, and died.

Sir Humphry Davy, the most distinguished chemist of his age, was born at Penzance, and, in his twentieth year, commenced his career of experiment. Resolving to ascertain the properties of nitrous oxide (since called 'laughing gas') he inhaled it, at the risk of filling his lungs with aqua-fortis, a deadly poison to all animals ; and after experiencing its exciting effects, as respects rapid locomotion, and boisterous laughter, he breathed it in so concentrated a state, as that aqua-fortis was formed in his mouth. When appointed professor of chemistry to the royal institution, 1801, his lectures, both on account of his bold experiments, and fascinating oratory, were attended by all the rank and talent of the kingdom. Those on agriculture, form a most valuable philosophical work ; but his fame especially rests upon his development of the laws of Voltaic Electricity. Although the French were in the midst of a bitter war with us, their Institute granted the professor the First Consul's prize for the

greatest electrical discovery. He next proved that the fixed alkalies have metallic bases ; a matter which had long engaged the attention of philosophers in search of the causes of earthquakes, &c. He illustrated his theory by decomposing alkalies and earth in a mimic volcano : 'A mountain (says an eyewitness), had been modelled in clay, and a quantity of the metallic bases introduced into its interior : on water being poured into it, the metals were thrown into violent action, successive explosions followed, red hot lava was seen flowing down its sides from a crater in miniature, lightning played around, and, in the instant of dramatic illusion, the tumultuous applause and cheering of the audience might almost have been regarded as the shouts of the alarmed fugitives of Herculaneum or Pompeii.' In 1812 the professor was knighted ; and after a visit to the continent, commenced his celebrated investigation into the nature of fire-damp in coal mines : the result was his safety lamp. In 1818 he took his departure for Naples, to examine the papyri found in Herculaneum, and if possible, to discover some method of separating the leaves from each other ; but his efforts failed, and returning to England 1820, he was elected president of the royal society. His health soon after began to decline, in consequence of incessant application : so jealous was he of any interruption to his studies, that he would put on one shirt over the other, for appearance sake, rather than lose time in taking off the under one, and would deprive himself of the proper allowance of rest. It was at this period that he published his 'Selmonia,' a very pleasing book on fishing ; and visiting Italy, with a hope to regain his strength, he wrote his 'Consolations in Travel, or the last days of a Philosopher,' a work which has so much of imagination in it, that a great poet declared, 'had not Davy been a philosopher, he would have been the first poet of his day.' He expired at Geneva, 1829, aged fifty-one.

John Abernethy, a distinguished English pathologist, who, by his work on the Constitutional origin and treatment of Local Diseases, established the important principle, that local affections are the result of constitutional ones, and are consequently alone curable by remedies applied to the constitution at large. Surgery, upon the admission of this hypothesis, rose from the rank of an art to that of a science. As Mr. Abernethy affirmed that the digestive organs are always either the cause of local disease, or sympathize deeply therewith, by being originally or consequently deranged, his attention was ever directed to them; and however his 'blue pill' may have become a source of merriment, and even derision, from the pathologist's laughable pertinacity in enjoining its use upon the first sight of his patient, he is allowed to have conferred, by the establishment of his doctrine, most valuable benefits on the community. Though proverbially rough to his patients, Mr. Abernethy was an upright man, and most amiable in all his private relations. As a practical surgeon, his fame spread even to the continental schools, for his bold operations of tying the carotid and the external iliac arteries. He died 1831, aged sixty-six.

Felicia Hemans, daughter of an Irish gentleman, married and settled in Wales. After the birth of five sons, her husband deserted her, and she devoted herself to authorship for support: on the death of her mother, she returned to Liverpool, her native city, whence she emigrated to Dublin, and died there 1835, having only a few months enjoyed the pension of 300*l.* obtained for her by Sir Robert Peel. Mrs. Hemans holds a high place amongst the lyric, descriptive, and pathetic poets of our day; her chief fault lies in the frequent adoption of an unauthorized and mechanical metre.

Rowland Hill, a dissenting divine, was son of the baronet of that name, and educated at Eton and Cambridge. Caught by the eccentricities of White-

field, as Whitefield had done, at Oxford; and although he obtained his degree of M. A., and was ordained deacon, he was refused priest's orders. Estranged from his family on account of his singular conduct, he went about the country, collecting crowds both within and on the outside of conventicles; but the great event in his life was his foundation of Surrey chapel, Blackfriars, London, 1782, his design being to erect a pulpit open to pious ministers of all denominations, and of every country; or, as the British critics interpret the words, 'to become the conductor of a theological omnibus.' Having put his chapel into the hands of trustees, they granted him 300*l.* a year, out of which he boarded the persons who occupied the pulpit during his summer absences; and he was especially fond of inducing any eminent Welsh minister, who happened to be in town, and did not see the impropriety of preaching in a dissenting place of worship, to officiate in his pulpit in *his native tongue*. It was while on what he termed 'a gospel tour' in Scotland, that he gave his two carriage-horses the respective names of Order and Decorum; and on being asked the cause by his biographer, Mr. Edwin Sidney, his son-in-law, he replied, 'They said in the north, Mr. Hill rides upon the backs of order and decorum; so I called one of my horses order, and the other decorum, that they might tell the truth in one way, if they did not in another.' These horses, and especially a third, a cream-coloured saddle-horse, named Bob, began to excite scandal among his followers; and some notion of the licence permitted in Surrey chapel may be gathered from the subjoined anecdote. 'Once,' says Mr. Sidney, 'an impudent fellow placed a piece of paper on the desk, just before Mr. Hill was going to read prayers. He took it, and began—'The prayers of this congregation are desired for—umph—for—umph—well, I suppose I must finish what I have begun,—for the Rev. Row-

land Hill, that he will not go riding about in his carriage on a Sunday!—This,' continues Mr. Sidney, 'would have disconcerted any other man; but he looked up coolly and said—'If the writer of this piece of folly and impertinence is in the congregation, and will go into the vestry after service, and let me put a saddle on his back, I will ride him home, instead of going in my carriage.' He then went on with the service, as if nothing had happened. Mr. Sidney observes, in a note, 'I once told him this story, and asked him if it was true: 'Ay, that it is,' he said, 'true enough—you know I could not call him a *donkey* in plain terms from the reading-desk.' Again; one day, when a number of persons took shelter in the chapel during a shower of rain, he interlarded his sermon with the following *jeu-d'esprit*: 'Many people are greatly to be blamed for making their religion a *cloak*; but I do not think those are much better, who make it an *umbrella*.' Mr. Hill had a pleasing person, and always dressed as a divine of the established church. A gentleman once entered a dissenting chapel in the country, and on returning home said, 'I have seen a man with such a commanding air, as I never witnessed before—who can he be?' It was Rowland Hill; and Mr. Sidney remarks very justly that, as Johnson said of Burke, had a man chanced to take shelter with him during a shower, he would have gone home and said 'I have seen a most extraordinary man.' In his theological opinions he was a Calvinist; but what is called hypercalvinism he could not endure. He was for drawing together Christians of every denomination, and was willing to join in any universal communion with them. When on one occasion he had preached in a chapel, where none but baptized adults were admitted to the sacrament, he wished to have communicated with them, but was told respectfully, 'You cannot sit down at our table.' He only replied calmly, 'Oh, I thought it was the *Lord's* table.' Mr. Hill died, aged eighty-eight, 1833.

Edward Irving, after figuring in Ryder's company of actors at Kirkaldy, was admitted to orders in the Scottish kirk. Coming to London as an accredited minister, he officiated in Hatton-garden chapel; and, in a few weeks, attracted very general notice: insomuch that persons of all persuasions, noble and simple, crowded to hear him; and no pulpit oratory was considered as approaching in excellence the eloquence of Mr. Irving. A more commodious chapel was at length constructed for him, but his popularity declined with a rapidity proportioned to that of its rise; and upon his resorting to other means of gaining a congregation than those usually practised by sincere men, he involved himself in violent disputes with the elders of his church, and was threatened with excommunication. Affecting to believe in the miraculous grant of the gift of tongues to his followers, he allowed persons to declaim during divine service, after the manner of the ancient rhapsodists, not a syllable of what they so uttered being intelligible to the congregation. Just as it was clear that Mr. Irving was about to strike out a new form of faith, and to become the leader of a sect, death stopped his course, in his forty-second year, 1834.

Dr. Adam Clarke, the eminent methodist divine, was son of an Irish schoolmaster, and according to his own account, the drudgery he endured in his progress through Lilly's grammar, was most appalling. To the legendary lore, however, of 'Tom Thumb' and 'Jack the Giant Killer,' he ardently devoted his leisure moments; and to them he ascribed his acquisition of a literary taste, and of a firm belief in spiritual agency! The story of 'Troy' was equally profitable, for it impelled him to invoke the spirit of Hector, and helped to convert him from a timid child, into a courageous lad. Nay the study of magic had its charms and uses for Adam Clarke. He plunged into the murky depths of Cornelius Agrippa's occult philosophy; and be-

came the terror of midnight depredators, who were constrained, by apprehension of his spells, to leave the premises of his father unvisited. At length he abandoned this pursuit, and revelled, without restraint, in the scenery of the 'Arabian Nights;' a book to which he confidently traces his fondness for oriental history and literature. Though no man in his senses would think of gravely recommending a similar course of discipline to children, yet Tom Thumb, Hector of Troy, Cornelius Agrippa, and the Arabian Nights, all helped, somehow or other, to lift him out of the smoke and stir of the quotidian world. They filled his soul with unearthly aspirations, which, as he advanced in years, found their appropriate direction. At the age of seventeen, he joined the methodists, though his father was of the church of England, affirming that he had had a call to that effect, while working in a field. He was next seized with what he terms a *morbid* regard for truth; he *believed* that he had done this, and he *thought* that he had said that,—but he was never *sure*. His memory and his senses he treated as altogether unworthy of credit; and he declares he lost the former for ever, although, in a given time after that period, he had 'preached 5000 sermons, without knowing beforehand a single sentence which he should utter.' In 1783 he was received as a preacher among the methodists; and in that capacity was, for nearly half a century, followed more than any other dissenter of the regular class. In the latter part of his life he caused, by his peculiar creed, much dispute amongst the Wesleyans, of whose society he professed himself a member. He was in fact an ultra-arminian, and abhorred calvinism to such a degree, that he even ventured to question the foreknowledge of the Deity: the doctrines of Christian perfectibility, and the internal witness of the spirit, were maintained by him with passionate eagerness. It was his strange interpretation of the second chapter of Genesis (in his very labo-

rious work 'The Commentary on the Bible,' wherein he transmutes the serpent into an ape, and denies the eternal filiation of the second person in the Trinity), that occasioned the dispute in question. The old Wesleyans condemned the doctrine as heretical, and Adam Clarke pronounced the usually-received opinion to be blasphemous; whereon an angry contest blazed up, which will probably terminate in a division of the Wesleyans into two distinct sects. Dr. Clarke died of malignant cholera 1832.

Dr. Calcott, who gave up medicine for music, took his degrees at Oxford, and devoted his leisure to the compilation of a musical dictionary, which he did not live to complete. His 'Forgive, blest shade, this tributary tear,' would of itself establish his fame as a musical composer. He died 1821.

Charles Lamb, after an education in Christ's hospital, became a clerk in the India-house, and occupied his post there thirty-six years. He died, aged sixty, 1834. His 'Essays by Elia,' and the light he has thrown upon the literature of Shakspeare's day, merit the highest praise; indeed his remarks on the works of the great bard's contemporaries gave a new tone to modern criticism, and were the means of reviving and bringing into general estimation that great body of dramatists.

Charles Maurice Talleyrand de Périgord, one of the most extraordinary instruments of the great French revolution, was born at Paris of a high family, 1754. He was club-footed, and on that account treated with little affection by the members of his house; he, however, took orders, and his splendid talents procured him such rapid advancement, that at the age of thirty-four, he was made bishop of Autun. On the assembly of the States-general 1789 (p. 469), the bishop was returned thereto by the clergy of his diocese, and, to the surprise and indignation of the royal party, proposed the abolition of tithes, and the confiscation of all clerical property; both which measures he saw

speedily carried. In vain did the clergy who had returned him to the assembly remonstrate with him on his unnatural conduct: he projected numerous other sweeping reforms, and became so popular with the levelling factions, that he was deputed by the mayor of Paris to officiate at what was termed the Federation of the 14th of July, 1790. On that day immense crowds assembled in the Champ de Mars; the king, queen, and court were present under a tent, and at an altar prepared for mass was seen, clad in his episcopal attire, and attended by 200 priests in white linen with tricoloured ribbons, M. Talleyrand, who, amidst a hurricane of wind, and a deluge of rain, celebrated mass, and consecrated both the royal standard, and the flags of the eighty-three departments, which waved over the altar. Upon his consecration, soon after, of the constitutional bishops and clergy, the pope excommunicated him 'as a sacrilegious wretch;' whereupon Talleyrand relinquished his sacerdotal office, and turned his mind henceforward to secular affairs. While on an embassy in England from Louis XVI. 1792, Talleyrand was denounced by the republicans as a royalist; and when hesitating whether he should return to France, was formally outlawed. The death of Louis, and the sudden ordinance of the British government for his departure from England, drove him to America, 1794, whence he was recalled in two years by the directory, and made minister of foreign affairs. He had resigned that post on Buonaparte's return from Egypt, and when reinstated by the consul, laboured to make peace with Germany and England, which latter he effected by the treaty of Amiens. He was made grand chamberlain and prince of Benevento, when Napoleon was declared emperor; but being displaced in 1807 for advocating peace, he retired to his estate of Valençay, to which place Buonaparte sent him in custody the king of Spain and his brother (as at page 482), charging him to keep them safely.

Napoleon is said to have thus made him the jailer of the Spanish family, in revenge for his constant opposition to the French invasion of the Peninsula. In 1813 he was anxiously recalled to fill his old post of foreign minister; but no political skill could avert the fall of Napoleon, obstinately opposed as he was to make concessions that alone could save him. When every branch of government was in utter confusion, through the waywardness of the emperor, M. Talleyrand emphatically exclaimed, 'C'est le commencement du fin!' and became actively instrumental in the restoration of the Bourbons, which was effected 1814. Louis XVIII. again made him foreign secretary, and created him a peer, as prince de Talleyrand; but he did not long remain in office, and was wholly detached from public life during the brief sway of Charles X., after whose deposition he took the oath of allegiance to Louis Philip, exclaiming—'C'est le treizième! Dieu accorde qu'il soit le dernier!' Of the Bourbons he used frequently to say that, during their twenty-five years' exile, 'ils n'avaient rien appris, comme ils n'avaient rien oublié.' The prince acted as ambassador on one occasion from Louis Philip to king William IV. and died, aged eighty-four, 1838. The dukedom of Dino, conferred on the prince by the king of Sicily 1815, he ceded before his death to his nephew, Alexander, having no issue of his own. Talleyrand was a lineal descendant of the princess d'Ursino, mentioned at page 411; and his family were sovereigns of Perigord, in France, three centuries ago.

Georges Cuvier, born in Switzerland, was son of an officer in the French pay, and very early evinced a taste for natural history. The French revolution forced him to become a private tutor in the family of count d'Helleny, with whom he removed to Caen; and here the abbé Tessier discovered his great genius, and, when the capital was more quiet, induced some men of science there to examine

his papers. The consequence was Cuvier's appointment, 1795, at the age of twenty-six, to the newly-founded chair of comparative anatomy. His first thoughts, on finding himself placed in a permanent situation, were for his distressed relatives. He invited his father and brother to live with him, and after seeing them comfortably settled, applied himself to his favourite studies with a zeal that nothing could repress. He was every where heard with delight and conviction, for he had adopted extensive views, and arrived at sagacious conclusions, which guided his investigations into physical nature, and shook to their base the systems of former naturalists. He especially impressed on his pupils the importance of entomological study. A young medical student came to him upon a certain occasion, full of a discovery he supposed himself to have made, in dissecting a human body. Cuvier immediately asked him if he was an entomologist? to which he replied in the negative. 'Go, then, and anatomize an insect,' said Cuvier, 'and then reconsider the discovery you have made.' The young man did so, and returned to Cuvier to confess his error. 'Now,' said Cuvier, 'you see the value of my touchstone.' As superintendent of the Jardin des Plantes, he declined accompanying Buonaparte to Egypt; and circumstances by degrees contributed to the success of his labours. The French armies, wherever they marched, sent home whatever might increase the collections of Paris; and Cuvier being allowed to arrange the numerous contributions thus received, did so according to the system which his eloquent lectures explained. By labours which knew little intermission, and with the help of these daily increasing stores, he was enabled to lay the foundation of the science of comparative anatomy, and to introduce a reform throughout the whole series of

the animal kingdom. From 1800, till his decease in 1832 (aged sixty-three), his life was spent, as professor at the college de France, in the advancement of his favourite science, and in the publication of his splendid works in its illustration; and he was alike respected, patronized, and honoured, in succession, by Napoleon, Louis XVIII. Charles X., and Louis Philip, the latter of whom raised him to the peerage. Baron Cuvier was a highly benevolent man in his private character; in manner he was noble and dignified; and to all persons kind and conciliatory. His application was prodigious; after his multifarious occupations out of his house, if he had only a quarter of an hour to spare before dinner, on his return, he availed himself of it to resume some composition, interrupted since the night before. Cuvier's 'Animal Kingdom' and 'Fossil Remains' have necessarily superseded all former systems of natural history.

David Douglas, the indefatigable botanist, had been a gardener in lord Mansfield's service, and by the patronage of Dr. Hooker, of Glasgow, was enabled to make an excursion in search of plants through the Highlands of Scotland. This brought him before the London horticultural society, and he was commissioned to travel in North and South America for specimens; to which journey we are mainly indebted for our clarkias, dahlias, and a host of modern ornamental shrubs and plants. The first dahlias, however, seen in Europe, were brought by Humboldt from Mexico, a few years before. The hothouse also he has materially enriched, by splendid pines and grapes. His death took place at Hilo, one of the Sandwich islands, 1834, while engaged in fresh researches; his body being found by the natives at the bottom of a wild cattle trap, wherein was a bullock that had trampled him to death.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, CUSTOMS, AND USAGES.

Babbage's Calculating Engine, 1822. Babbage, who sits in Newton's Lucasian chair, to surround himself with fame of
It has been the fortune of Mr. Bab-

a more popular kind than that of his great predecessor, by the project of a calculating engine, being an attempt to reduce arithmetic to the dominion of mechanism, to substitute an automaton for a compositor, and to throw the power of thought into wheel-work. To bring the possibility of such a work within the compass of general belief was no easy task; but as mathematical men, sufficiently acquainted with the principle upon which it was founded, were convinced of its practicability, the British government, advised by the royal society and a committee of eminent engineers, determined on constructing the projected mechanism at the cost of the nation, and to hold it as national property. The machine is yet in its progress towards completion; and its incalculable utility in the production of numerical tables, accurate in every copy, with facility and cheapness, can only be estimated by those whose employments are connected with the various sciences, and above all with navigation and astronomy. Almost every department too of the useful arts, and commerce in all its relations, depends for its full exercise on certain tables, such as have been calculated and printed from the earliest periods of human civilization to the present time, in all countries, whether tables of multiplication (especially what are termed tables of *powers*, in which a number is multiplied by itself successively), of the squares and square roots, and of the cubes and cube roots of numbers, geometrical and trigonometrical tables, with their endless varieties of natural sines, co-sines, tangents, secants, together with tables of the higher powers of these immediate functions; and tables of logarithms. Then again tables of interest, discount, and exchange; tables of annuities, and others necessary in life insurances; and tables of rates of various kinds, necessary in general commerce. Without the aid of accurately calculated tables, some of them exclusively astronomical, no ship could pursue its course on the ocean

without danger of wreck,—tables of the sun's position of centre, of its right ascension and declination—of the moon's place for every hour, together with her change of declination for every ten minutes; and the same as respects the planets and fixed stars. Having thus pointed out the possible *utility* of the calculating engine, some slight notion of its manner of working may be obtained from the following explanation of the inventor himself. 'Let us consider the subjoined table:

Terms of Table.	Table.	1st diff.	2nd diff.
1	—1	—3	—2
2	—4	—5	—2
3	—9	—7	—2
4	—16	—9	—2
5	—25	—11	—2
6	—36	—13	
7	—49		

This is the beginning of a table in very extensive use, and is called a table of square numbers. Any number in it is found, by multiplying the number which expresses the distance of that term from the commencement of the table, by itself; thus, 25 is the fifth term from the beginning of the table, and 5 multiplied by itself, or by 5, is equal to 25. Let us now subtract each term of this table from the next succeeding, and place the results in another column, which may be called 1st difference column. If we again subtract each term of this first difference from the succeeding term, we find the result is always the number two. That such must always be the case, will appear to any person who takes the trouble to carry on the table a few terms further. Now when once this is admitted as a known fact, it is quite clear that, provided the first term (1) of the table, the first term (3) of the first difference, and the first term (2)

of the second or constant difference, are originally given, we can continue by simple addition the table of square numbers to any extent. For the series of odd numbers may be formed by repeatedly adding the constant difference 2 to (3) the first of them, and we then necessarily have the series, 3, 5, 7, &c.; and again by successively adding each of these to the first number (1) of the table, we produce the square numbers. Having thus, we hope, thrown a little light upon the theoretical part, we will endeavour to show that the mechanical execution of such an engine is not so far removed from ordinary machinery as might be conceived. Let the reader imagine three clocks placed on a table, side by side, and having a thousand, instead of twelve hours, marked on the face of each; and every time a string is pulled, let them repeat the hours to which their hands point. Let him further suppose that two of the clocks, for the sake of distinction, called A and B, have some mechanism by which the clock A advances the hour hand of the clock B one hour, for each stroke it makes on its own bell; and let the clock B, by a similar contrivance, advance the hour hand of the clock C, one hour for each stroke it makes upon its own bell. With such an arrangement, and having set the hour hand of the clock A to two o'clock, that of B to three o'clock, and that of C to one o'clock, let the reader imagine the strings of the repeating-parts of the clocks pulled continually in the following order of succession. Pull the string of clock C; pull the string of clock B; pull the string of clock A. Mr. Babbage here inserts a table of which the following is enough explanatory. By pulling the string of C, clock C (which marks one) strikes one; by pulling the string of B, clock B (1st difference and which marks three) strikes three, each of its strokes moving forward the hand of clock C one figure, so as to leave the hand of clock C at four; then by pulling the string of A, clock A (2nd difference,

and which marks two) strikes two, each of its strokes moving forward the hand of clock B one figure, so as to leave the hand of clock B at five. So begin the pulling again at C, and follow with B and A; and the results in the striking of the respective clocks will be 4, 5, 2; 9, 7, 2; 16, 9, 2; 25, 11, 2; &c., as in the table of square numbers. 'If now (continues Mr. B) only those hours struck or pointed at by the clock C (viz. 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, &c.) be attended to and written down, it will be found that it produces the series of the squares of the natural numbers. Such a series could, of course, only be produced completely by this mechanism so far as the three first figures; but this is sufficient to give some idea of the construction, and was the point to which the first model of the calculating engine extended.'

*The first Temperance Society established in the United States of America, 1826, to induce the labouring classes to abandon the injurious practice of spirit-drinking. Similar Societies have since sprung up in England; and, notwithstanding the ridicule which has been cast upon them, have effected very great good. It is an ascertained fact that, amongst the manufacturing classes especially, the least exhausted by fatigue, the most cheerful at the close of the day, and the most invigorated when the morning returns, are they who have made no use of distilled spirit, save as a needful medicine. The term *tea-totalism*, as applied to abstinence from spirit-drinking, is an Americanism for *tea-total-drinking*.*

*St. Katharine's Docks opened, 1829. These are laid out on the site of the ancient monastery and hospital of that name. The cost of them was 1,827,113*l.*; and they were constructed by the merchants of London on the much admired and novel plan of Philip Hardwick, esq., to give additional accommodation to the increased quantity of shipping.*

Promulgation of Homœopathy, 1829.

Samuel Hahnemann, a German physician, in his 'Organon der Heilkunst,' enforced a doctrine in Pathology, to the effect that every disease is curable by such medicines as would produce, in a healthy person, symptoms similar to those which characterized the given disease. So speedily was this opinion adopted by a large portion of the medical practitioners of the continent, that the term Homœopathy was adopted to express what was taken as the fundamental principle of a new science; *homoion pathos*, similar affection. Like affections, therefore, were to be cured henceforth by like, in opposition to the ancient dogma of the palliative method, 'opposites may be cured by opposites.' The homœopaths call the palliative supporters *antipaths*; and those who follow the commonly-used plan of attempting a cure by exciting some dissimilar affection, *allopaths*. Hahnemann professed to build his hypothesis upon the conformity of his project to the plan of nature; and as if because some diseases are slow in progress, and have been formed by gradual accessions and increments, so did he project the annihilation of them by like means, and labour to show that medicines, by being diminished in quantity to infinitesimal atoms, by trituration and shaking, become in an equal ratio the more powerful in their effects upon disease. Thus two or three billionth parts of a grain of mercury are, by division and friction, more potent than one entire grain, in the cure of any disorder of the system, properly applied. Let not therefore be considered henceforth as so purely rhetorical, the flourish of the poet, 'My wound is great,—because it is so small;' though, to speak seriously, the success of the homœopathic system abroad, is likely to produce in our own country, after a time, a considerable change in the mode of treating diseases of a chronic nature.

The Promulgation of Deontology, 1830. Mr. Jeremy Bentham, known long in England as the head of a new sect of sophists, called utilita-

rians, who declare their search to be after *maxima felicitas*, or the greatest-happiness-principle, left his papers for posthumous publication to Mr. Bowring; and that gentleman has given them to the world under the title of Deontology, or the science of Morality. Deontology, therefore, affects to be a new system of ethics, and takes its appellation from *to deon*, the Greek expression for the fit or right. Spurning all previous moral codes, Mr. Bentham has the boldness to speak thus of our ancient philosophers: 'While Xenophon was writing history, and Euclid giving instruction in geometry, Socrates and Plato were *talking nonsense*, under the pretence of teaching religion and morality.' By a species of mental machinery, analogous to the calculating engine, Mr. Bentham would work out problems with virtue and vice, as Mr. Babbage does with numbers; and that which the preaching of the inspired prophets, and even the spread of Christianity has failed to effect, is at once to be brought about by the instrumentality of the modern Jeremiah. Deontology is constantly and certainly to restrain man from error; and let a man submit his thinking organs but for a moment to the wheels of the deontological machine, and he will see at once, that if he be a drunkard, a gambler, or, in short, a breaker of any moral command whatever, it will not *be fit* that he should be a breaker of any moral command any more, and further than that, he will not any more be a breaker thereof. The faith of the deontologist may be summed up in few words. 'That those actions are moral which produce the greatest possible happiness, and those immoral which have a contrary tendency; that virtue is the preference of a greater remote good to a less adjacent good; that vice is only a false moral arithmetic; that the ablest moralist is he who calculates best,—the most virtuous man, he who most successfully applies right calculation to conduct; that moral sense and right reason are nothing more than empty forms of ig-

norant dogmatism ; that it is idle for a man to talk about *duty*, because every man who hears him is thinking about *interest* ; that *ought* and *ought not* are phrases without meaning, except with reference to pleasure or to pain ; that if any man were to act always with a correct view to his own interest, he would secure to himself the greatest obtainable portion of felicity ; and that if every man, acting correctly for his own interest, obtained the maximum of obtainable happiness, mankind would reach the millennium of accessible bliss, and the end of morality, *maximam et universam felicitatem*, would then be accomplished.' Two things are evident, on perusing this utilitarian creed ; first, that Mr. Bentham gives no man credit for disinterestedness ; and last, that he would deprive us of our conscience, simply to give us in its stead a rule of conduct, which, however perfect and demonstrable, must be self-acting, and execute itself, powers with which no hitherto known moral laws are indued.

Epsom Race Stand completed, 1830, at a cost of 13,890*l.* raised in shares. The two most frequented courses in England are Newmarket and Epsom. Epsom races, conducted partly on the ground of Runnymede, begin on the Tuesday preceding Whitsunday, and continue to the end of the week ; and there is a second race, of inferior interest, in October. Newmarket races occur seven times in the year. At what time these sports were introduced into England, it is now matter of doubt. King John is the first sovereign noted for his love of swift

horses of chase ; but Edward III. was the first who bought running horses at 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* each, for mere racing purposes. In Elizabeth's time, racing was approved as a liberal and innocent pastime, even by the puritanical writers. James I. gave great encouragement to the same, and silver bells were the rewards ; and after Charles II. had restored Newmarket races, each succeeding sovereign displayed an interest in the turf, by granting pieces of plate to the winners. The chief benefit resulting from the turf is the improvement in the breed of that valuable animal, the horse ; hence the modern English steed, whether racer, hunter, or draught horse, is allowed to surpass in essential points even the far-famed animals of Arabia. So extraordinary has been the attention paid to pure blood and pedigree, that a defect therein is instantly evinced in both inferiority of shape, and a failure in strength and speed. The most celebrated English *hunt* is that of Melton-Mowbray, Leicestershire, beginning in November, at which, for five months, the most distinguished lovers of the chase attend.

SOVEREIGNS. *Turkey*. 1808, Mahmoud II. *Popes*. 1800, Pius VII. ; 1823, Leo XII. *France*. 1814, Louis XVIII. ; 1824, Charles X. *Russia*. 1801, Alexander I. ; 1825, Nicholas I. *Sweden and Norway*. 1818, Charles XIV. (Bernadotte.) *Denmark*. 1808, Frederick VI. *Portugal*. 1816, John VI. ; 1826, Maria. *Spain*. 1808, Ferdinand VII. *Austria (late Germany)*. 1792, Francis II. *Prussia*. 1797, Frederick IV. *Netherlands*. 1813, William I.

SECTION V.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM IV.

1830 TO 1837—7 YEARS.

Personal History. William IV. was the third son of George III. and had been educated a sailor. He was born at St. James's 1765, and created duke of Clarence. Under Admiral Digby, the young prince bore a part in the great naval engagement between the English and Spanish fleets, commanded by ad-

mirals Rodney, and Don Juan de Langara. By Mrs. Jordan he had eight children, whom, on coming to the throne, he raised to the honorary rank of a marquis's family, creating the eldest son an earl. They are—1. George, surnamed Fitzclarence, earl of Munster; 2. lord Frederick Fitzclarence; 3. lord Augustus; 4. lady Sophia; 5. lady Mary; 6. lady Elizabeth; 7. lady Augusta; 8. lady Amelia. In person, William considerably resembled his father. He was frank and unreserved in manner; and from having been little accustomed to courts, was much averse from the restraining formalities of high station. His habits of life were domestic and simple; while, in the routine of every day business, he was remarkable for regularity and despatch. Attached to his friends, forgetful of injuries, and anxious for the happiness, not only of those immediately connected with him, but of his people at large, and moreover attentive to all duties, religious and moral, during the short period of his reign, he went to his grave, at the mature age of seventy-two, universally lamented. In 1818 he had married Adelaide, daughter of the duke of Saxe-Meiningen, an amiable princess, who survives him, but by whom he has left no issue.

Political History. The English nation was in the act of rejoicing at the accession of so popular a monarch as William, from his early life and habits, was likely to become, when a new revolution in France compelled the abdication of Charles X., and raised the duke of Orleans to the throne. To this succeeded an insurrection of the people of Belgium, a country which, upon the overthrow of Buonaparte, had been annexed to Holland, whose sovereign ruled over both Dutch and Belgians, with the title of king of the United Netherlands. The Belgians, however, were opposed to the Dutch in character, religion, and language; and it wanted nothing but the example which France had just set, to fan the bickerings which had long existed into the flame of rebellion. Declaring themselves independent, therefore, the Belgians offered their crown to a son of the new king of the French; but he refusing it, prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the widower of the princess Charlotte of England, was invested with the dignity. The consequences of these changes were sensibly felt throughout Europe; the Poles, aspiring after their ancient freedom, were again in open rebellion against the Russians, the young duke of Brunswick was ejected from his dominions, and Spain was thrown into anarchy by the intrigues of the exiled constitutionalists. Even the Brazilians rose upon their new emperor, and compelled him to fly, and the Greeks murdered their president Capo d'Istria; England itself was in an irritated state from the same cause; and the duke of Wellington's administration, opposed as it was to the spirit of reform that had been stirred up in so many directions, was supplanted by a Whig cabinet under earl Grey. The year 1830 closed with a series of rural attacks upon the machinery lately introduced amongst English agriculturists: stack and barns were burned, cattle hamstrung, and farm-houses plundered: and prompt measures were requisite to subdue the rioters. The Irish peasantry, too, were both starving and clamorously calling for a repeal of the union, which, now that Catholic emancipation had been effected without any beneficial result, was considered by them as the ground of all their evils.

The most important feature in the reign of William was the carrying of the question of Reform, which had been agitated for nearly half a century in vain. The king, at his accession, had retained in office the ministers of George IV.; but the opposition to the duke of Wellington and his cabinet was (as has been already stated) so marked on the opening of his first parliament, November, 1830, that his majesty permitted earl Grey to form an administration from the whig party. In March 1831, the Reform Bill was brought into the commons by lord John Russell; but though it passed that house, it was rejected by the lords, and serious riots took place in consequence,

in Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol. In the last-named city, the recorder, Sir Charles Wetherell, who had conscientiously opposed the question in parliament, was assaulted violently by the mob; and the insurgents then plundered and set fire to all the public buildings. In 1832 the measure, being again brought forward, was carried after a protracted struggle, during which, as the lords still more violently opposed the bill, the Grey ministry resigned, though they were again reinstated; while a *run* upon the bank of England occasioned, in the course of three days, the drawing out of above a million sterling, and the Asiatic cholera was sweeping its thousands to the tomb in every town of the British empire. It was in the same year that, when Holland dissented from the arrangement which had separated Belgium from her territory, the French sent a large force upon Antwerp, and drove the Dutch garrison from the citadel.

The domestic events of 1833 were the abolition of negro slavery, the throwing open of the trade to China, which had hitherto been exclusively enjoyed by the East India company, and the passing of laws to relieve the catholic Irish from a pecuniary support of the protestant church. The chief foreign occurrence of that year was the breaking out of the succession war in Spain, in consequence of king Ferdinand's abolition of the *salique* law, whereby he enabled his infant daughter to succeed him, instead of the rightful heir, his brother. To this hour that contest has continued. In 1834 a bill for the amendment of the Poor Laws passed the parliament; but when lord Grey was opposed in his views with respect to remodelling the Irish church, he resigned office, and was succeeded by lord Melbourne, who was again quickly displaced by the appointment of Sir Robert Peel as premier, and the duke of Wellington as foreign secretary. The new parliament, however, which followed, was decidedly inimical to the ministry, there being in it a large body of Irish members, who had taken umbrage at the support given to tithe collectors; and when it assembled in 1835, Sir Robert and his colleagues saw it wise to retire. The Melbourne cabinet, therefore, was restored; and from that period until the decease of the king, no measure of importance, beyond the bill for the reformation of the English corporations, was carried. The lords and commons were often in violent collision on various points; but the good sense of the people operated to preserve, as we fervently trust it ever may, that just balance of power, by the maintenance of which England is, with the blessing of Providence, what she is,—the freest, most enlightened, and happiest nation on the earth. King William's health began suddenly to decline in the spring of 1837; and on the 20th of June he expired, aged seventy-two. His remains were interred at Windsor.

CHIEF DOMESTIC EVENTS.

Rick-burning, 1830. The mode adopted by the large party employed in this truly un-English practice, to render the ignition certain, has never been fully ascertained. It is presumed that each incendiary was provided with an apparatus by which he threw into the stack of wheat or hay, from a distance, some combustible substance; as ricks were usually found on fire at all points simultaneously, although guards had been over them to prevent the approach of characters likely to act so injuriously.

Breaking out of the Asiatic Cholera, 1831. After ravaging India for two years, the pestilence so called spread over the European continent, and was imported by shipping into Musselburg, in Scotland, 1831. Mr. Moir, a surgeon of that place (author of the poetical contributions signed Delta, in Blackwood's Magazine), soon determined that the affection was highly contagious, although numerous subsequent cases in England seem to prove the contrary. It is sufficient here to say, that many of the victims

of this disorder were, from a state of high health, brought, in less than twenty-four hours, to the grave. The author himself saw a farmer who, in good health and joyous spirits, was leaning on his gate on the one day, before the same period on the next in his coffin; and also a young woman, who, in apparent health, attended divine service at church on the afternoon of Sunday, before eight on the succeeding morning a corpse. The term cholera was applied to this manifest pestilence, because the prevailing distress was in the stomach and bowels; but the Asiatic cholera, and what is designated cholera-morbus, are diseases totally opposed in character. The exhaustion in both is perhaps occasioned by the irritability, or increased or inverted action of the digestive functions; but in the Asiatic, or malignant cholera, the blood is, previously to death, materially affected. Hence the blue appearance of persons who died of the latter, although such post-mortem exhibitions are commonly the result of the sudden departure of the vital principle. But there were cases in which the patient in cholera, before any other symptom of infection displayed itself, observed his fingers to assume a leaden hue. Such as were predisposed by temperament, or any peculiar state of body, received the disorder, which appears the utmost that can be alleged as respects its contagious nature; and there is no exaggeration in asserting the amount of deaths to have exceeded 100,000 in England, in two years. The terms *infectious* and *contagious* are here used one for the other, although strictly speaking, contagion applies to the touch of the sick person, and infection to atmospheric influence.

Bristol Riots, 1831. In April of this year, Sir Charles Wetherell had been annoyed by the mob during his spring visit, as Recorder; but on his attendance, October 29th, the popular feeling broke out into open violence. The military were called in, and a person was killed. The magistrates, however, although the mansion-house

was forced by the rabble, would not sanction the use of arms; and they even sent the regiment that had opposed the mob, out of the town. At length both gaols were fired, after the prisoners had been released; and in the night of the 30th, the mansion-house, the bishop's palace, and fifty other buildings, shared the same fate. On the 31st, the citizens, who had been hitherto paralyzed, joined a few dragoons, and completely overcame the now intoxicated rioters. Of these eighty-one were soon after convicted, after a patient investigation, and punished in various ways; and courts-martial were held on colonel Brereton, commander of the district, and on captain Warrington, who acted under him. The former committed suicide during the investigation; and the captain was cashiered, with liberty to sell his commission. The mayor, Mr. Pinney, and other magistrates, were brought to trial also, but acquitted, on the ground that the citizens had refused to confide in them. The escape of the Recorder was with difficulty accomplished; and had he not consented to pass over the roof of the mansion-house to other buildings, his valuable life would most probably have fallen a sacrifice.

Passing of the Reform Bill, 1832.

This important measure professed to ensure a more equal and extended representation of the people in parliament. The *rotten* boroughs, as they were termed, being places having no other electors than the tenants and subservients of the lord paramount of the soil, were to be, in the main, annihilated, and their privilege of sending members to parliament given to towns, which, in the course of years, had risen to importance. Many borough towns, which had sent two members, were now to send only one; and amongst the changes which the measure effected are the following: England lost seventy, and Scotland and Ireland gained each five members. Small boroughs to the amount of sixty-two were extinguished, and a moiety

of forty-six larger ones cashiered ; the total number disfranchised was 167. On counties and towns, some of which had not before been represented, ninety-seven seats were conferred. In counties, the right to vote is henceforth in the forty-shilling freeholders, (as of old), and also in 10*l.* copyholders, and in householders of twenty-one years, whose rent shall amount to 50*l.* ; but in towns, all householders, being resident, whose rent shall amount to 10*l.* have that privilege. These provisions extend to counties and towns in Scotland ; but only to towns in Ireland. The period of election is not to exceed two days. It will be seen, therefore, at a glance, that the tendency of reform is to throw into the hands of the multitude the privilege of returning members to the commons house of parliament. As the vast majority of the people are to be gainers by the arrangement, to which, with due restraint, there can be no possible objection, it only behoves all true friends of their country to bear in mind that the ba-

lance of power must still be preserved, and that neither of the three branches of the legislature can have beyond a certain share of privilege, without endangering the safety of the other two, and consequently its own.

The China Trade thrown open, 1833. The East India Company had hitherto monopolized the trade in tea, &c. with China ; but in renewing their charter, 1833, the parliament deprived them of their exclusive privilege, admitting all merchants to share henceforth in the trade.

Abolition of Negro Slavery, 1834.

Poor-law Amendment Act passed, 1834.

Burning of the Houses of Parliament, 1834. These commodious buildings, including the ancient chapel of St. Stephen, were totally consumed by fire, in consequence of some workmen having over-heated the stoves : happily, however, the national archives and library were saved.

Law of Reform of English Corporations passed, 1835.

CHIEF FOREIGN EVENTS

Expulsion of the Duke of Brunswick, 1830. Duke Charles William Ferdinand, who fell at Jena, 1806, had four sons, the youngest of whom, Frederick William, would have succeeded him, but for the tyranny of Napoleon, who made Brunswick a portion of his brother's kingdom of Westphalia. Duke Frederick married, 1804, the princess Mary of Baden, by whom he had two sons, the princes Charles and William. Irritated at the escape of their gallant father, 1809, Napoleon planned to carry them off from Baden, where the duke had left them ; but his scheme failing, they were conveyed to their parent in England, and educated there. When the duke was put in possession of his paternal dominions, 1814, he was by no means happy in finding the constitution of his duchy completely changed. That brave prince fell, as has been shown, at Quatre Bras, 1815 ; and his sons being minors, the Prince Regent

of England, their uncle, administered the affairs of the state, as guardian for prince Charles, until his coming to the age of nineteen, October 30, 1823. The young duke, like his father, looked with jealousy on the changes which circumstances had effected in the government ; and upon his refusal to acknowledge the new legislative chambers, 1830, the Brunswickers appealed to the diet of the empire, and symptoms of distrust displayed themselves on all sides. At length the duke ordered cannon to be placed in different parts of the city, as if to guard against a meditated attack upon the government ; and on the evening of the day in which this measure was adopted, his highness was pelted by the mob, in returning from the theatre. A vast multitude assembled in the night about the palace, demanding that the cannon should be removed, the chambers acknowledged, and that the duke should not go to England, as he had in-

tended. All these demands were complied with; but, on the morrow, the magistrates found the military had been intimidated by the mob, and soon after, a multitude of the commonalty burst into the palace to seize the duke. His highness hereupon threw himself amongst a party of his hussars, and escaped to the frontiers; and the mob being foiled in their object, set fire to the venerable edifice. The chambers soon after placed the duke's brother, William, in the sovereignty, and the choice was ratified both by the diet and by William IV. of England. One arrangement, however, attendant upon the deposition of duke Charles, was calculated to form a dangerous precedent, and to affect the law of succession in all other European states: it was that even the issue of the expatriated prince should be excluded from the throne of Brunswick; a measure for which it might be difficult to find even satisfactory legal principles. By a constitutional act, passed in 1832, Brunswick is a limited monarchy, with the right of succession to females, upon the failure of male heirs; the legislature is composed of the duke, an upper-chamber of bishops and owners of equestrian estates, and a lower chamber of bishops also and deputies of towns.

Separation of Belgium and Holland, 1831.

The Siege of Antwerp, 1832. The king of Holland having refused to evacuate the citadel, in conformity with the terms agreed on by the powers which arranged the separation of Belgium from Holland, the French, under marshal Gerard, advanced upon the place, in number 70,000. The citadel was defended by general Chassé and 45,000 men. The besiegers broke ground on the 29th of November, and on the 24th of December the place surrendered. General Chassé behaved with great valour, and was eventually left with no roof to protect him: but military men regard the defence as wanting plan, although every Dutchman appeared to do his duty during

the contest. The Dutch lost 500, and the French 200 men.

Succession War in Spain, 1833. Ferdinand VII. having, by a decree of the Cortes 1830, abolished the salique law (instituted by Philip V.), in order to raise his daughter to the throne, thus excluding his brother, Don Carlos, the latter, upon the decease of Ferdinand, 1833, quitted England for the Basque provinces, where the people rose in a mass in his favour. Though the English government permitted a British legion, under colonel Evans, to aid the party in power, called Christinos, from Christina, the widow of Ferdinand, now regent for her daughter, the Carlists have not only maintained their ground, but have been enabled to strike terror into the constitutional party. How the matter will be eventually decided, time alone can show; though the wealth and worth of the nation are in favour of Don Carlos, who already takes the style of Charles V. The salique law had been in force in Spain more than a century; and as Charles IV. had ratified it as the only rule of succession, his son, Don Carlos, who was born before any intention of altering its provisions existed, must have had, in strict justice, the same claim to its benefits, as his brother Ferdinand.

France under Louis Philip I. Louis Philip is son of the duke of Orleans, who, in the breaking out of the revolution, assumed the title of M. Egalité to please the jacobins, though he soon after terminated his life on the scaffold. His early instructor was the celebrated Madame de Genlis, and at sixteen he entered the army, with the title of duc de Chartres. Upon declaring in favour of general Dumourier, when he opposed the convention, Louis was compelled to take refuge in Switzerland; where for a time he maintained himself as a teacher of history, geography, and mathematics, in the college of Reicheman. Thence he crossed to America, and for many years passed a wandering life there with his brothers, whom he lost by death soon

after his settlement at Twickenham, in England, in 1808. On the restoration of the Bourbons, he returned to France; and he lived in the vicinity of Paris, until the revolution of 1830 placed him on the throne. The trial of the obnoxious ministers took place instantly on his accession, and they were sent in perpetual exile to the fortress of Ham, in Picardy: at the wish, however, of all humane persons, in England as well as in France, they have been recently set at liberty, though much injured in health as well as property, particularly prince Polignac. In 1832, a serious insurrection in the southern provinces, raised by the widow of the duke de Berri in favour of her son, was suppressed by the vigilance of Philip, and the duchess was imprisoned for a while at Blaye. The king, amidst great difficulties, has hitherto preserved his throne, and displayed considerable talent in managing a people so turbulent and fickle as the French, although his life has been more than once attempted. Meanwhile the ex-dauphin (duc d'Angoulême), son of the expelled monarch, Charles X., resides in the Austrian territory, and superintends the education of his nephew, the duc de Bordeaux, who is, after himself, the rightful heir, and who enjoys amongst his partisans the empty title of Henry V.

Insurrection of the Duchess de Berri, 1832. This princess, the widow of the assassinated duc de Berri, and mother of the duc de Bordeaux, in whose favour his grandfather, Charles X., and his uncle, the duc d'Angoulême, fruitlessly abdicated 1830, accompanied Charles X. in his exile to Holyrood house. Being assured, however, of a disposition existing in the south of France to espouse the cause of her son, she left Edinburgh 1831, and took up her abode near Genoa. Her partisans in France having intimated the necessity of her appearance amongst them, she landed in April 1832 at Marseilles, in an open boat,

with only two of her suite, M. de Ménars, and general Bourmont. Night had set in; and, as they could neither proceed in the dark, nor venture into any house, for fear of discovery, they determined on sleeping under the shelter of a rock. The repose of the duchess, who was wrapt in a cloak, was sound; and when she awoke, she was overjoyed to perceive the white flag waving in lieu of the tricolour, on the church of St. Laurent. Her ardour would now have led her to enter Marseilles, and declare herself; but her companions wisely induced her to go into the hut of a charcoal-burner, and remain there quietly until one of them should ascertain how far the city was disposed to favour her cause. General Bourmont, after a day's secret inquiry in Marseilles, returned with the disheartening news, that the royalist party, after a slight movement in behalf of Henry V., had been overawed by the military; and recommended an instant departure from the neighbourhood. The duchess declared she would not quit France, but would proceed to La Vendée; and at nightfall, with a guide, the trio set out on foot, to perform that long and perilous journey. The guide having lost his way, after proceeding a few miles, they were compelled to bivouac for the night on the open ground; and the duchess, again wrapping herself in her cloak, slept soundly till the dawn of day. On waking, she was informed that a house within view belonged to a furious republican, maire of the commune of C—. Determining to go thither, though at the risk of her life, she requested de Ménars and de Bourmont to proceed to Montpellier, and on arriving at the mansion, desired to speak with the maire. 'Sir,' she said, when he entered the drawing-room into which she had been ushered, 'you are a republican, I know:—I am the duchess of Berri,—and I simply ask you for a night's asylum.' The maire made her welcome, ordered a bed to be prepared in his best chamber, and

on the morrow conveyed her in his own carriage to Montpellier.

From Montpellier the duchess proceeded to Toulouse, accompanied by M. de Ménars, and the Marquis de L—, and thence to the chateau of a friend of the latter, where the party arrived in the middle of the night. As the host was not prepared for the arrival of so illustrious a person, and had a number of friends in his house, the duchess proposed to pass amongst them as his (the host's) cousin; and she played her part so well, that no suspicion of her real character was entertained by the strangers. Having employed herself, during some days which she spent at this house, in arranging for a general rising of the peasantry in La Vendée, she was conveyed in the disguise of a peasant-boy, by her host, on the fifth of May, to the neighbourhood of Grand-Lieu, where Charette, the generalissimo of the insurgent forces, met her, and accompanied her on foot to Aigrefeuille; on their way to which place the duchess fell into the stream, on attempting to ford the Maine, and but for the promptitude of Charette, would have been drowned. In a mean cottage near Nantes, wherein she took up her abode for some time, she renewed her correspondence with the Vendean chiefs; and in a miserable room, with bare walls, and a single chair, a table, and clumsy bedstead, did she have interviews with some of the leading men of her party. The peasantry, aware of her retreat, allowed no one to approach the hovel without undergoing a strict scrutiny; and in the night of the third of June, the tocsin sounded for a general rising amongst them.

The first encounters between the military and insurgents were at Maisdon and Vieilleigne, in both which the latter were defeated; and the duchess being present at that at Vieilleigne, narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, avoiding the disaster only by hastily exchanging horses with Charette. It was soon evident that the

Vendeans could not stand their ground. The government troops were every where, and in such force, that no sooner was any local rising attempted, than it was crushed, and the duchess herself obliged to fly from place to place, to avoid being captured by the soldiers. So closely was she pursued by them, that she was rarely able to enjoy an entire night's sleep. The chiefs of her party, therefore, suggested that she should proceed secretly to Nantes, where an asylum was prepared for her; and that on a certain market-day, a large body of the insurgents, disguised as peasants, should enter the city, seize the castle, and declare Nantes the provisional capital of the kingdom.

In pursuance of this plan, the duchess, in the dress of a peasant-girl, accompanied by M. de Ménars as a farmer, and a female, set out on foot for Nantes. During the journey, the duchess's feet suffered so severely from the thick worsted stockings and clumsy shoes she wore, that she sat down on a bank, took them off, stuffed them into her large pockets, and continued her way barefooted. The unusual whiteness of her legs, as compared with those of the country girls, being likely to excite suspicion, she rubbed them over with moist earth, and in this condition entered, daughter of a race of kings as she was, the ancient city of Nantes. Before, however, she had reached her appointed abode, an old apple-woman, taking her for what she appeared to be, requested her and her female companion to help her in placing her basket of fruit upon her head, promising each an apple for their trouble. To prove the self-command of the duchess, she not only cheerfully complied, and reminded the woman of the promised reward, but also stopped afterwards to read a placard on a wall, which offered a price for her head, and declared her party outlawed.

The royal fugitive at length reached the house selected for her abode, and

possession of a room, furnished a place of concealment, to which could retire on the appearance of Mr. The retreat in question was ingeniously-contrived recess behind replace; to which she was always fire at the ringing of a bell from th. The back of the chimney, consisted of an iron plate, d on its centre, and thus formed or to the concealed, but win-ss, apartment. In this dwelling remained five months; and al- h it was known to the police that as in Nantes, by no means they adopt were they able to discover use of her sojourning. Treachery, ver, effected what diligence could One Deutz, who had been high r confidence, informed the officers stice of her place of residence; s he was not aware of the secret s, the soldiers, who accompanied el Lorrière to the house, would searched for their prize in vain, ot a mere accident given her into hands. On the first alarm of er, the duchess, with her female anion, Mlle. Kersabiec, M. de ars, and M. Guibourg, who ed her household, retired to the s; and though, during the whole , the search continued with und vigilance, on the part of both e and soldiery, the duchess was ere to be found. Architects masons were employed to com- the exterior with the interior ap- nce of the apartments, with the of detecting some contrivance for alment, but in vain. They could : no discovery, though they ham- d with great violence at the walls e recess itself, insomuch that fragments of lime fell amongst little party, and added to their of being buried in the ruins of house, which they supposed was t to be pulled down. A similar ination of the neighbouring houses then made; and bedrooms and ses of every kind underwent a

strict but equally fruitless investigation. Still the party held out; and it began to be believed that the duchess had escaped, when two soldiers, who were left on guard in the room which had the secret closet, feeling the cold severe (now November), kindled a large fire in the fireplace behind which the fugitives were concealed. The heat and smoke in the recess became, after a little while, almost insupportable; but not until the clothes of the duchess had repeatedly taken fire, would she think of a surrender. It was then more for the sake of her companions in suffering, than of herself, that, opening the door of the recess, she walked into the apartment, followed by her friends, and announced herself to the two astonished guards. The party had been cooped up in a space three and a half feet in length, and decreasing from eighteen to eight inches in width, for sixteen hours; and all of them were covered with dust, begrimed with smoke, and singed both in hair and garments. The duchess having declared her name to the soldiers, general Dermoncourt was sent for, assured her of his protection, and conducted her eventually, with great respect, to the castle of Nantes. 'Ah, general!' said the still gay heroine, 'if you had not waged war with me as against St. Lawrence, unworthy as it was of a brave and loyal knight, you would not now have my arm under yours.' The duchess was conveyed from Nantes to Fossé, and thence to the fortress of Blaye; but after some months' confinement, was liberated, on promising to reside out of France. The former Vendean warriors having been aided in their insurrection in favour of the dethroned family, when Napoleon was consul, by a party of irregular troops called (wherefore does not appear) *Chouans*, the term has been usually applied since to all insurgent soldiers in what has been designated emphatically, 'the royalist province' of La Vendée.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, INSTITUTIONS, AND USAGES.

Steam Coaches first used 1830, on occasion of opening the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. The distance between the two towns is thirty-three miles, and is accomplished in an hour and three quarters. The saving to the Manchester manufacturers, in the carriage of cotton alone on the railway, is 20,000*l.* per annum.

The London University chartered, 1836. The charter includes what was originally called the London University, founded 1827, and King's College, founded 1829; and, as a joint institution, it is empowered to grant academical degrees to such as shall have acquired, in the estimation of the senate, proficiency in literature, science, and art.

India-rubber Clothing, 1837. The india-rubber tree, or caoutchou, is abundant in Brazil; and a century ago, the Mexicans used its inspissated juice in the manufacture of sandals,

while the Spanish Americans varnished their cloaks with the same, to keep out the rain. In Europe, the substance was little used but in the apparatus of surgeons, and for erasing pencil-marks from paper, until an attempt was made, a few years since, to form shoes, and minor articles of apparel of it. In 1837, however, Mr. Mackintosh obtained a patent for the manufacture of coats, cloaks, and complete dresses of india-rubber, not composed of the substance alone, but of stuffs properly prepared to receive a lining of it; and so nearly saturated with the caoutchou do such stuffs become, that they are impervious to rain, and extremely durable. In 1770 a cubical piece of half an inch of india-rubber cost three shillings, and was only to be bought at one or two shops in London: now it is imported by tons, and sells at about fourpence the pound.

SECTION VI.

VICTORIA, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1837.

The genealogical descent of our present most gracious Queen from Egbert, the founder of the English monarchy, who traced his pedigree from the deified Woden of the Saxons, is thus deduced; and it may be questioned if any other monarch can so accurately show consanguinity with the originator of his state. The dates refer to the commencement of the reign, commonly.

1. *Egbert*, 828, married lady Redburgha, whose son
2. *Ethelwolf*, 838, married lady Osburgha, daughter of the great butler of England. Their son,
3. *Alfred the Great*, 872, married Elthelswitha, daughter of the earl of Mercia, and had by her
4. *Edward the Elder*, 901, who married thirdly Edgiva, daughter of a private gentleman, and had
5. *Edmund*, 941, who married Elgiva, daughter of a private gentleman, and had
6. *Edgar*, 959, who married secondly Elfrida, daughter of Olgar, earl of Devonshire, by whom he had
7. *Ethelred the Unready*, 979, who by his queen, Elgiva, daughter of a noble named Thored, had

8. *Edmund Ironside*, 1016. That prince married Elgitha, the widow of a noble Dane, and by her had
9. *Prince Edward the Outlaw*, 1017, so called because of his expatriation and exclusion from the throne by Canute (as shown at page 195). He married Agatha, daughter of Henry III., Emperor of the West, and had by her Edgar Atheling, who died without issue, and Margaret. The next in descent, therefore, was
10. *The Princess Margaret*, 1057, who married Malcolm III., king of Scotland, by whom she had
11. *The Princess Matilda*, 1100, who became the queen of Henry I. of England, youngest son of William the Conqueror, and thus united the Saxon and Norman houses. By Henry I. she had William, who died at sea without issue, and
12. *Matilda*, 1135, queen of England in her own right, whose claim was disputed by Stephen. By her second marriage with Geoffrey Plantagenet, she had
13. *Henry II.*, 1154, who married Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, by whom he had
14. *John*, 1199, who signed Magna Charta, and married secondly Avisa, daughter of the earl of Gloucester, by whom he had
15. *Henry III.*, 1216, who married Eleanor, daughter of Raymond, earl of Provence, and had by her
16. *Edward I.*, 1272, the conqueror of Wales. He married Eleanor, daughter of Fernando IV., king of Castile, and her brother, king Alonso XI. was father of Pedro the Cruel. By her Edward had the unfortunate
17. *Edward II.*, 1307, who married Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France, and had by her
18. *Edward III.*, 1327, who married Philippa, daughter of the count of Hainault, in the Netherlands, and by her had
19. *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, born 1338, who married Elizabeth de Burgh, daughter of the earl of Ulster. By her he had an only child,
20. *The Lady Philippa*, born 1355, who espoused Edmund Mortimer, earl of March, and gave birth to
21. *Roger Mortimer*, earl of March, born 1375, governor of Ireland, who left issue by his wife, Eleanor Holland, daughter of the earl of Kent, among other children, a daughter,
22. *Lady Ann Mortimer*, born 1396, who married Richard Plantagenet, earl of Cambridge, second son of Edmund duke of York, fifth son of Edward III.; and by him had only one child, who succeeded his uncle Edward, 1415, who died without issue, as
23. *Richard, Duke of York*, born 1410, coming to the earldom of March by the death of his father in the same year, 1415. Richard fell at the battle of Wakefield, in his contest with the heroic queen Margaret, 1460, aged fifty, leaving issue by his consort Cecilia, grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, and daughter of Ralph Neville, first earl of Westmoreland, several children. The most eminent in history of these are, the second child, our king Edward IV.; the sixth, George, duke of Clarence, who was cruelly drowned in wine by that monarch, his brother; and the eighth, our king Richard III. The line of succession was maintained by
24. *Edward IV.*, 1471, who married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, of Grafton, Northamptonshire, and widow of Sir John Gray of Groby, by whom he had, besides Edward V. and his brother, who were murdered in the Tower,

25. *The Princess Elizabeth*, whom Henry VII. married 1486, and thus united the rival houses of York and Lancaster. By her king Henry had, previously to his son Henry VIII., a daughter,
26. *The Princess Margaret*, born 1489, who married James IV. of Scotland, by whom she had
27. *James V. of Scotland*, 1513, who had issue by his second wife, Mary, daughter of Claudius, duke of Guise,
28. *Mary, Queen of Scots*, 1542, as she is usually called; and that unhappy princess had, by her second husband, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, James VI. of Scotland, who, by the will of Elizabeth, succeeded to the United Kingdom of England and Scotland, as
29. *James I.* 1603; who, by his queen, Anne, daughter of Frederick II., king of Denmark, had (besides Charles I. and other children),
30. *The Princess Elizabeth*, who espoused, 1613, Frederick V., the unfortunate Count Palatine of the Rhine, and king of Bohemia, by whom she had, after twelve other children,
31. *The Princess Sophia*, who married, 1658, Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick, himself lineally deriving from our king Henry II., thus strengthening the chain of descent. This duke was the first elector of Hanover, and left issue by his consort, Sophia,
32. *George I.*, 1714, king of England after the Stuarts, who espoused Sophia, only daughter of George, duke of Brunswick and Zelle, by whom he had
33. *George II.*, 1727, who married Wilhelmina, daughter of John, Margrave of Anspach, by whom he had, eldest of eight children,
34. *Frederick Lewis, Prince of Wales*, who married, 1736, Augusta, daughter of Frederick, duke of Saxe-Gotha. He died before his father, George II., who was succeeded by prince Frederick's son (the eldest of nine children),
35. *George III.*, 1760. This estimable monarch married Charlotte, daughter of Charles, duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, by whom he had thirteen children, two of whom, George IV. and William IV. succeeded him on the throne but left no issue. The fifth child, and fourth son, of George III. was
36. *Edward, Duke of Kent*, born 1767, who married Maria Louisa Victoria daughter of Francis, duke of Saxe-Cobourg, and widow of Prince Emich Charles of Leiningen, and dying 1820, left by his consort an only child,
37. *VICTORIA*, born May 24, 1819, succeeded her uncle, William IV. 1837, and was crowned June 28, 1838.

THE INDEPENDENT STATES OF THE WORLD, 1838.

EUROPE.

1. *France* may be considered to have originated under Pharamond, 420. The family at present on the throne derives from Hugh Capet, 987, being the Orleans branch of his descendants; and it superseded the

Bourbon branch 1830. King *Louis Philip I.*, born 1773, succeeded 1830. Catholic, with a representative constitution.

2. *Rome*. The temporal power of the pope was established by the grant of privileges made 606 by Phocas, the eastern emperor. *Gregory XVI.*

(Maurice Capellari), born 1765, received the tiara 1831 : the head of the Roman Catholic church, and absolute in power.

3. *Spain*, springing from Don Pelagio's Gothic remnant, 712. Queen *Isabella II.*, born 1830, succeeded 1833. Catholic, with a constitution. Don Carlos, the queen's uncle, called by his adherents Charles V., has possession of the northern provinces, the ancient cradle of the monarchy ; and both the queen and himself are lineally descended from Ferdinand the Catholic of Castile, 1474, the founder of the state.

4. *Austria*. As the representative of the ancient emperors of Germany, the Austrian monarch dates from Charlemagne, 800. His own house springs from Rodolph, count of Hapsburg, 1273. The emperor *Ferdinand I.*, born 1793, succeeded 1835. Catholic, and part of his large empire governed by feudal laws, and part by a representative constitution.

5. *Russia* dates from Ruric, 859 ; but the present family began with Michael Romanov, 1613. The emperor *Nicholas I.*, born 1796, succeeded 1825. Greek church, and absolute in government.

6. *Denmark* was first raised to importance by Regner Lodbrog, 897, and fully established by Valdemar 1157. King *Frederick VI.*, born 1768, succeeded 1808. Protestant, and absolute.

7. *Prussia* dates from Sigefroi, margrave of Brandenburg, 925, from whom the present sovereign is descended. King *Frederick-William III.*, born 1770, succeeded 1797. Protestant, chiefly absolute, but some provinces with feudal laws.

8. *The Sicilies*. The Norman city of Aversa, 1028, was the nucleus of this state, which includes the district of Naples in Italy, and the subjacent island of Sicily. Roger Guiscard, a descendant of the founders of Aversa, assumed the title of king, 1130 ; but the crown has, since 1734, been held by a branch of the Spanish family.

(See page 430.) King *Ferdinand II.*, born 1810, succeeded 1830. Catholic, and absolute.

9. *Portugal* was taken from the Moors by Alfonso of Burgundy, at the battle of Ourique, 1139, and erected into an independent sovereignty by the conqueror. It had always, in the time of the Goths, been a province of Spain. Queen *Maria II.*, born 1819, succeeded 1826. Catholic, and with a representative constitution.

10. *Sardinia* was made a kingdom by the emperor Barbarossa, 1164 ; and the duke of Savoy was constituted its hereditary sovereign, 1720. Genoa had been for ages an independent republic, but was, by the congress of Vienna, 1815, added to Sardinia. The state now consists (besides the isle of Sardinia) of Piedmont, Savoy, and Genoa, forming one united province, and consisting of all the territory between the south eastern corner of France (under Switzerland) and the north of Italy, its coast skirting the gulf of Genoa. King *Charles Albert*, born 1798, succeeded 1831. Catholic, and absolute.

11. *Turkey*. The first settlement of the Turks in Europe was made by Othman I., 1298, when he took Nice ; but their capital was not in Europe until their overthrow of the Eastern empire, and the fall of Constantinople to Mahomet II., 1453. Sultan *Mahmoud-Khan II.* born 1785, succeeded 1808. Mahometan in faith, and despotic in government.

12. *Switzerland*, when freed from Austrian domination by Tell, 1308, formed itself into the Helvetic Confederacy, and still maintains its polyarchical form of government.

13. *Sweden*. This portion of ancient Scandinavia was commonly a mere appendage of either Norway or Denmark until 1523, when Gustavus Vasa effected its independence. It now includes Norway ; but the ancient line of Vasa was set aside by the election of the present French dynasty, 1818. King *Charles XIV.* (Bernadotte) born 1764, succeeded 1818.

Protestant, and with a representative constitution.

14. *Holland* was freed from Spanish rule by the combined measures of the prince of Orange and counts Hoorn and Egmont, 1579; and by what was termed the Union of Utrecht, established itself as a republic, professing the protestant faith, with an elective head, called Stadtholder. The office being at length made hereditary in the Orange family 1747, the present and last stadtholder was raised to the rank of king of the United Netherlands, 1815, including Belgium, or those provinces which did not join in the revolt of 1579. An insurrection, however, of his Belgian subjects, who are catholics, took place 1830, which caused the erection of Belgium into a separate kingdom, and the king's title is now limited to the Netherlands of Holland. King *William I.* born 1772, succeeded 1813 as stadtholder. Protestant, with a representative constitution.

15. *Bavaria*. The elector Maximilian was raised to the rank of king by Napoleon, 1805. King *Louis I.*, born 1786, succeeded 1825. Catholic, with a representative constitution.

16. *Wurttemberg*. Duke Frederick was made king by Napoleon, 1805. King *William I.*, born 1781, succeeded 1816. Protestant, with a constitution.

17. *Saxony*. The elector, Frederick Augustus, was made king by Napoleon, 1806. King *Anthony I.*, born 1755, succeeded 1827. Catholic, and feudal government.

18. *Hanover*, which had been the inheritance of each sovereign of Great Britain from George I. to William IV. inclusive, passed, upon the death of the latter 1837, to his next surviving brother, Ernest, duke of Cumberland, in consequence of the exclusion of queen Victoria by the Salique law. George III., the last elector, was made king of Hanover on the deposition of Napoleon 1814. King *Ernest I.*, born 1771, succeeded 1837. Protestant, with feudal government.

19. *Belgium*, erected into a king-

dom on its separation from Holland 1830; and in the following year prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was appointed by the great European powers, with the consent and authority of the Belgians, to fill the throne. King *Leopold I.*, born 1790, declared sovereign 1831. Catholic, with a representative constitution.

20. *Greece*, on its revolt from the Turks 1821, was for some time harassed by the divisions of her chiefs; but the people at length consented to leave the settlement of affairs to France, England, and Russia, at whose hands they received as sovereign, *Otho*, son of the present king of Bavaria. King *Otho I.*, born 1815, appointed sovereign 1833. Greek church, with a representative constitution. The Turks held the Morea (the principal portion of modern Greece) from 1715 (p. 410).

The republic of the Ionian Islands claims to be called an independent state, though under the military protection of Great Britain. It formed a part of ancient Greece; and the lord high commissioner from England resides at Corfu, commanding a British force of about 3000 men. The religion is of the Eastern Greek church; but the Roman, or Greco-Latin, church, enjoys equal protection. Corfu is the ancient Corcyra, whose inhabitants, the Phœaciens, are mentioned by Homer as a seafaring and hospitable people. The Corinthians built Corcyra, and the isle took the city's name: the Corcyraeans were the most powerful naval race next to the Athenians. Theaki, the ancient kingdom of Ulysses, Ithaca, yet shows the gardens of Laertes, still fertile, the castle of Ulysses, and the fountain of Arethusa. The last is a spring of the clearest crystal water, gently oozing through a simple arch of red stone, and meandering in graceful curves down a ravine, amidst magnificent plants of myrtle, broom, and arbutus. Cefalonia, the ancient Cephalonia, Homer's Samos, is the largest of the seven isles. (See p. 495.)

The Germanic Confederation.

Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Wurt-

temberg, Saxony, and Hanover, before mentioned, belong either wholly or in part to the Confederation. But the Austrian territories of Hungary, Transylvania, Dalmatia, Lombardy, and Venice, and the Prussian ones of Prussia proper, Posnania and Neuchâtel, are out of the sume.

21. *Anhalt-Dessau.* Duke Leopold, born 1794, succeeded 1817. Protestant, with feudal laws.

22. *Anhalt-Bernburg.* Duke Alexander, born 1805, succeeded 1834. Protestant, with feudal laws.

23. *Anhalt-Coethen.* Duke Henry, born 1778, succeeded 1830. Protestant, with feudal laws. The dukes of Anhalt claim descent from Ascanius, great grandson of Noah.

24. *Baden.* Grand Duke Leopold, born 1790, succeeded 1830. Protestant, with a representative constitution.

25. *Brunswick Wolfenbützel.* The house of Brunswick, one of the oldest in Germany, traces far higher on the male side than the Azos, sovereigns of Este, Ferrara, and Milan, in the ninth and tenth centuries; and derives its name of Guelph from an intermarriage in the eleventh century with the then ancient house of the counts of Swabia. Two sovereignties spring from the house of Brunswick: the elder, or ducal line, possessing the city of Brunswick and fortress of Wolfenbützel in its domains, and the younger, or electoral branch, having the kingdom of Hanover under its sway. From the last have sprung all the English monarchs from George I. inclusive. Duke William, born 1806, succeeded 1831. Protestant, with a representative constitution.

26. *Hesse Cassel.* Elector William II., born 1777, succeeded 1821. Protestant, and absolute.

27. *Hesse Darmstadt.* Grand Duke Louis II., born 1777, succeeded 1830. Protestant, with a constitution. Hesse Homburg is a younger branch, not ducal.

28. *Hohenzollern-Hechingen.* Prince Frederick, born 1776, succeeded 1810. Catholic, and absolute.

29. *Hohenzollern - Sigmaringen.* Prince Charles, born 1785, succeeded 1831. Catholic, and absolute.

30. *Liechtenstein.* Prince John, born 1760, succeeded 1805. Catholic, with a constitution.

31. *Lippe.* Prince Leopold, born 1796, succeeded 1802. Protestant, with feudal laws.

32. *Lippe Schaumburg.* Prince George, born 1784, succeeded 1787. Protestant, with a constitution.

33. *Mecklenburg Schwerin.* Grand Duke Frederick, born 1756, succeeded 1785. Protestant, with feudal laws.

34. *Mecklenburg Strelitz.* Grand Duke George, born 1779, succeeded 1816. Protestant with feudal laws.

35. *Nassau.* Duke William, born 1792, succeeded 1816. Protestant, with a constitution.

36. *Oldenburg.* Grand Duke Augustus, born 1783, succeeded 1829. Protestant, and absolute.

37. *Reuss Greiz.* Prince Henry XIX., born 1790, succeeded 1817. Protestant, and absolute.

38. *Reuss Schleiz.* Prince Henry LXII., born 1785, succeeded 1818. Protestant, and absolute.

39. *Reuss Lobenstein.* Prince Henry LXXIII., born 1797, succeeded 1824. Protestant, and absolute.

40. *Saxe Coburg Gotha.* Duke Ernest, born 1784, succeeded 1826. Protestant, with a constitution.

41. *Saxe Meiningen.* Duke Bernard, born 1800, succeeded 1803. Protestant with feudal laws.

42. *Saxe Altenburg.* Duke Joseph, born 1789, succeeded 1834. Protestant and feudal.

43. *Saxe Weimar.* Duke Charles Frederick, born 1783, succeeded 1828. Protestant, with a constitution.

44. *Schwarzburg Sonderhausen.* Prince Gunther, born 1801, succeeded 1835. Protestant, and absolute.

45. *Schwarzburg Rudolstadt.* Prince Frederick, born 1793, succeeded 1807. Protestant, with a constitution.

46. *Waldeck.* Prince George, born 1789, succeeded 1813. Protestant, and constitution.

47. *The Five Free Cities.* These are petty republics: Lubeck, Francofort, Bremen, and Hamburg, being the Hanse towns of 1140. Cracow, in Poland, was made free, 1815, by the three sovereigns who shared Poland amongst them, in consequence of a doubt to which portion it belonged.

Italian States.

48. *Lucca.* Duke Charles, born 1799, succeeded 1824. Catholic, with a constitution.

49. *Modena.* Duke Francis IV. born 1779, succeeded 1814. Catholic, and absolute.

50. *Parma.* Duchess Maria Louisa, born 1791; declared sovereign of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, on the deposition of her husband, the emperor Napoleon, 1814. Catholic, and absolute.

51. *Tuscany.* Grand Duke Leopold II. born 1797, succeeded 1824. Catholic, and absolute.

52. *San Marino.* This little republic, which maintained its independence when all the rest of Italy was revolutionized by Napoleon, was founded about 500 by a mason of Dalmatia, who retired to the mountain of San Marino as a hermit. His sanctity was such, that the princes of Italy gave him the mountain for a perpetual possession, on which many persons, out of veneration for the saint, took up their abode. Thus was the foundation laid of the town and republic: the town stands on the top of the mountain, and there are in the whole territory only three castles, three convents, and five churches, in the largest of which last the ashes of the hermit are entombed. The government is in the hands of the council of sixty, one half noble, and the other plebeian; and San Marino is regarded by the people as the greatest saint next the virgin.

ASIA.

1. *China,* the most ancient government of the world, fell to Hupilay, the Mongul, 1279, was recovered by the

Chinese under Chu, 1367, and saw the Manchow dynasty of Shun-chi (mingled Tartars and Monguls) ascend its throne, 1644. The descendants of Shun-chi still possess the government. The religion is Buddhism, and the government despotic. Thibet, which is a tributary state of China, professes the worship of the Grand Lama, its own sovereign, a spiritual personage, whose soul is said to pass from each preceding Lama to his successor. He is never approached nearer than the foot of an immense flight of steps will allow,—at the top of which he appears, diminutive in the distance, and surrounded by his attendant priests. He begins his reign usually as an infant of three years, and is one of the priests' children. The Chinese affect to believe in his divine original.

2. *Persia,* now divided into eastern and western. *Western Persia,* or Iran, has Teheran as its capital, is governed by a Shah, and may be considered the true remnant of the modern Persian empire founded by Ismael the Sage, 1510. *Eastern Persia,* or Cabul, was separated from the western portion, after the death of Nadir Shah, 1747, by Ahmed, a native of Cabul, who ascended its throne, and secured it to his descendants. Part of Cabul is in Hindustan. When Timour Shah (of Ahmed's race) died in 1793, four of his sons contended for the dominion; and the conflicts of those families have kept the country, up to this time, in a state of civil discord. The people of Eastern Persia are called by us Afghans, but they term themselves Pushtaneh. The religion of both Persias is Mahometan, and the government despotic.

3. *Hindustan.* The greater portion of this peninsula is under the sway of the British, either immediately, or by the tributary condition of its native princes. The Rajah of Nagpore, king of Oude, and sovereigns of Kotah, Mysore, Cochin, Satarah, Simore, the Nizam, Guicowar, Holkar, are allies and tributaries. The independent princes are the Rajahs of Korea, La-

hore, Nepaul, and Bootan. The population of the immediate British territory is about eighty-six millions, that of the tributary countries forty millions, and that of the independent states, eleven millions. The East India Company conducts the government of Hindustan. The religion of the native Hindus is that of Brahmè, who in his creative capacity becomes Brahmà; and from his mouth spring the brahmins or priests, from his arms the chehterees, or soldiers, from his body the brices, or husbandmen and traders, and from his feet the sooders, or labourers and servants. Hence the four castes of native Hindus. (See page 80.) The religion of Brahmè enjoins the self-immolation of widows, promising instant admission into paradise to such as shall so devote themselves. These human burnt-offerings are termed *suttees*.

4. *Beluchistan*. The central portion of Western Persia consists of vast deserts, surrounded every where by extensive high lands, terminating in mountain ridges. Beluchistan consists of all the southern high lands, together with the desert in their vicinity, and comes down to the Indian ocean. The country is larger than Great Britain, and is ruled by a khan. The religion is Buddhism.

5. *Birmah*. This rising nation of the east occupies a fourth of the peninsula beyond the Ganges, and is twice the size of Great Britain. The sovereign is called Boa, and is lord of the life and property of his subjects. The religion is Buddhism.

6. *Japan*. This very ancient government (see page 241) is conducted by a spiritual sovereign, the Dayrie, and a secular one, the Koeboe. The religion is Buddhism, and the rule despotic.

7. The barbaric kingdoms of Sinde, Assam, Anam, and Siam, the religion of all which is Buddhism, and the government despotic.

Buddhism has its origin from Savârthasiddha, the son of a king of Magad-

ha in South Behar, said to have been born 1029 B. C. Displaying much talent, and being given to contemplation, he earnestly meditated on the depravity and misery of mankind, and retired for six years to a cave on the banks of the Arnasara. At the age of twenty-six he appeared as a religious teacher at Benares, and from that period till his death, at the age of eighty, laboured (with the title of Buddha, or the Sage) to disseminate his peculiar opinions. They are briefly, that Iswara, or the deity, and the universe are in a measure identical. All things spring from and are reabsorbed by Iswara; and this eternal alternation of existence and non-existence is the law of nature, without any will or design on the part of Iswara. Some Buddhists affirm that the creation was the deliberate act of Iswara; but all concur in the transmigration of souls. 'We are all,' say they, 'expiating the sins of our former existence, by our present sufferings.' The religions of the world are divided by Hassel into five: Christians, 120 millions; Jews, four millions; Mahometans, 252 millions; Brahmists, 111 millions; Buddhists, 315 millions. The people of Hindustan, where Buddha lived, were formerly all Buddhists; but the faith of Brahmè now universally prevails there.

Arabia, Asia Minor, Georgia, Circassia, &c., are portions of the empire of Turkey, and consequently Mahometan. That portion of Arabia called free, is ruled by the Wahabees, a religious sect founded by Abd-al-Wahhâb, a native of Nejd, who mingled the Jewish, Christian, and Mahometan creeds, and, from the success of his absurd doctrines, occasioned great alarm to the professors of Islamism some forty years since. Independent Tartary is inhabited by nomad tribes, who pay submission to a ruler, termed Kham: this personage, it is ludicrously affirmed, rises every day after his great public meal, and having emptied a goblet of wine, exclaims aloud, 'Now let all the monarchs of the earth dine!'

AFRICA.

1. *Egypt*. This is ancient country a province of Turkey, and has been ruled over, since 1806, by Mahommed Ali, a pacha of the Porte, who, however, seems nearly independent of the sultan. Syria and part of Nubia are also under his authority at present. The native Egyptians, or Coobds, (Copts) are Arian Christians. (See Abyssinia.)

2. *Morocco*. This country, successively occupied by the Mauri, the Saracens, and the mingled natives and Moors of Spain, fell under the power of the Turks, together with the rest of North Africa, soon after their settlement in Europe, and is still a sort of tributary ally of the Porte. The sovereign, however, claims descent from Mahomet himself, and is termed Sultan. The government is despotic, and the present sultan is Muley Abdalrahman, who succeeded 1822.

3. *Free Nubia*. This portion is under the sway of Ali Mehmed Shah, who also rules Sennaar. Mahometan, and absolute.

4. *Abyssinia*, one of the largest and most ancient of the African states, has been for centuries a monarchy. The religion is a singular mixture of Judaism and Christianity. The Jewish sabbath, as well as the Christian one, is kept, and all the main points of the Mosaic law are observed. The Coobdic patriarch of Alexandria ordains all the Abyssinian clergy, and the Arian opinions, notwithstanding the exertions of the Jesuits, are every where maintained. The sovereign, who is styled Negus, is absolute. It was in Abyssinia that the famous Prester-John, about whose existence there were many doubts, ruled with vigour; thence too he issued his commands for the enthronement or deposition of neighbouring kings.

5. *Barca*, occupied by Arabs, noted for its burning sands, amid which was erected the celebrated temple of Jupiter Ammon. Against this fane Cambyzes sent an army of 50,000 men,

none of whom were ever afterwards heard of; whence it is supposed they were overwhelmed by some sudden action of the winds upon the sand. Travellers, in modern times, have frequently been stifled in passing the deserts of Barca.

6. *Tripoli*, governed nominally by a Dey, but having a Turkish resident, who levies the taxes for the Porte. Mahometan, and absolute.

7. *Tunis*, the seat of ancient Carthage, governed by a Dey. Mahometan, and absolute.

8. *Darfur*, governed by a king, and having an extensive trade in ivory, camels, and ostrich-feathers, with Egypt. Mahometan, and absolute.

9. *Bornou*, a country celebrated for its elephants, and indeed for every species of wild animal. The state is extensive, and carries on trade with the Moors. The sovereign is called Sultan, but higher in power than he is the Sheikh. Mahometan, and absolute.

10. *Ashantee*, a very extensive empire, but more barbaric than any yet named. The precise religion is not known, but the government is absolutel. (See page 502.)

The rest of Africa, known to Europeans, consists principally of colonies belonging to England, France, Portugal, &c., amongst which Algiers, held by the French, and the Cape of Good Hope by the British, are the most important.

AMERICA.

North.

1. *The United States*, a republic, having a president, chosen every fourth year. The remaining portion of North America consists chiefly of the British colonies, which are divided into the four grand portions of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. Quebec, which was long considered the capital of all British America, is now that of Lower Canada alone, while Toronto (formerly called York) is the chief city of Upper Canada.

<p><i>Central.</i> 2. <i>Mexico</i>: 3. The Central United States (Guatemala): and 4. Hayti. <i>South.</i> 5. <i>Brasil</i>, the only monarchy of America. Emperor, Pedro II., born</p>	<p>1825, succeeded 1831. Catholic, with a representative constitution. 6. Columbia; 7. Peru; 8. Chili; 9. La Plata, or the Southern United States; 10. Paraguay: all republics.</p>
---	---

GENERAL INDEX.

- Aaron, 10; of Alexandria, 159.
 Abassides, 165.
 Abbas the Great, 351.
 Abbo of Fleury, 193; of Paris, *ib.*
 Abbots, state of, 319.
 Abdallatif, 222.
 Abdalmalek, 162.
 Abdalrahman the Great, 165.
 — Kaliph, 167.
 Abelard, 210.
 Abencerrages, 277, 294.
 Abercromby, Sir Ralph, 532.
 Aberdeen university, 287.
 Abernethy, John, 601.
 Abijah, 29.
 Abimelech, 17.
 Abingdon, 186.
 Aboukir, battle of, 512.
 Abraham, 4.
 Absalom, 26.
 Abubeker, 158.
 Abyssinia, 626.
 Achæan League, 84, 87.
 Achilles, 18.
 Acre, siege of, 512.
 Acrisius, 12.
 Acts of the Apostles, 112.
 Addison, Joseph, 397.
 Adrastrus, 4.
 Adrian, emperor, 123; pope, IV., 221.
 Ediles, 41.
 Ægialeus, 3.
 Ælfric, 193.
 Ælian, 123.
 Æneas, 19.
 Æolians, 23, 26.
 Æra, Christian, 107, 150; martyrs, 135;
 Mahometan, 158.
 Æschines, 76.
 Æschylus, 64.
 Æop, 52.
 Ætna, 370.
 Afghans, 624.
 Agamemnon, 5, 20.
 Agatha, 131.
 Agathocles, 82.
 Ages, dark, 147; middle, *ib.*
 Agesilaus, 73.
 Agincourt, battle of, 272.
 Agis, 87.
 Agrarian law, 68.
 Agricola, 119.
 Agricultural distress, 578.
 Ahab, 31.
 Alasuerus, 61.
 Alaz, 43.
 Ahaziah of Israel, 31; of Judah, 35.
 Aidan, 158.
 Ailesford, battle of, 144.
 Air-pump, 379, 384.
 Aix-la-Chapelle, 168, 508.
 Akenside, Dr., 434.
 Al-Amin, 170.
 Alans, 118, 140, 142.
 Alaric, 141.
 Alba-Longa, 23, 40, 45.
 Alban's, battle at St., 275, 277.
 Alberoni, 407, 410, 432.
 Albertus Magnus, 237.
 Albigenses, 221, 230.
 Albuera, battle of, 483.
 Albuquerque, 297.
 Alcæus, 49.
 Alceste, shipwreck of the, 504.
 Alcibiades, 62, 69.
 Alcinous, 45.
 Alexander the Great, 77, 78, 80, 81.
 — Severus, 128.
 — I. of Russia, 487, 516.
 Alexandria, 78, 82.
 Alfieri, 539.
 Alfred, 177.
 Algarotti, 440.
 Algebra, 270.
 Algiers, 302, 499, 591.
 Al-Hadi, 166.
 Alhambra, 243, 294.
 Ali, 158, 160.
 Aljubarota, 267.
 Alliance, Holy, 488, 496.
 Al-Mamon, 170.
 Al-Mansur, 166.

- Al-Mohdi, 166.
 Alphonso, VI., Portugal, 369; X., 244.
 Al-Saffah, 166.
 Alva, duke of, 322.
 Al-Walid I., 163.
 Amasiah, 37.
 Ambrose, St., 141.
 Amelia, princess, 460.
 America, 296, 298, 335; revolution, 448, 467, 492; free, 566; South, independent, 585.
 Americus, 298.
 Amesbury, 147.
 Amiens, peace of, 459.
 Amilcar, 86.
 Amon, 46.
 Amphictyons, 8, 75.
 Amrou, 159.
 Anabaptists, 303.
 Anacharsis, 53.
 Anacreon, 58.
 Anastasius, I., 150; II., 164.
 Anaxarchus, 81.
 Anaximander, 53.
 Anchors, 154.
 Ancus Martius, 47.
 Andover, 191.
 Andrew's, St., university, 270.
 Andromeda, 13.
 Andronicus, 220.
 Angelo, Michael, 326.
 Anglo-Saxons, 201.
 Ankerstrom, 478.
 Anne, queen, 392.
 Anselm, 208.
 Anson, admiral, 416, 434.
 Antigonus, 82.
 Antiquaries, society of, 443.
 Antimony, 267.
 Antinomians, 303.
 Antipater, 82.
 Antisthenes, 74.
 Antoninus Pius, 124.
 Antony, Mark, 104, 106, 108.
 Antwerp, siege of, 611, 614.
 Apelles, 81.
 Apicius, 123.
 Apocrypha, 94.
 Apollonius, 86, 124.
 Apostles, the, 112.
 Aquinas, Thomas, 237.
 Arabia, 156, 157.
 Arabian Nights, 169, 390.
 Arabic numerals, 185.
 Aram, Eugene, 422.
 Aratus, 84, 86, 87.
 Arbela, battle of, 79.
 Arcadius, 142.
 Archelaus, 55, 113.
 Archilochus, 46.
 Archim des, 43, 90.
 Architecture, orders of, 575.
 Archytas, 74.
 Aretau-, 116.
 Aretin, 196, 274.
 Argonauts, 13.
 Argos, 5.
 Ariadne, 16.
 Arion, 50.
 Aristarchus, 93.
 Aristides, 60.
 Aristippus, 74.
 Aristomenes, 44.
 Aristophanes, 64.
 Aristotle, 75, 280.
 Arius, 137.
 Armada, Spanish, 320.
 Armagh, 146.
 Armagnacs, 273.
 Armenians, 153.
 Arminians, 339.
 Arne, Dr., 557.
 Arques, battle of, 324.
 Arragon, 196.
 Arrian, 120.
 Arses, 77.
 Arsinoe, 86.
 Artaxares, 128.
 Artaxerxes, Longimanus, 61; Mnemon, 69.
 Arthur, king, 151; prince, 227.
 Arundel, archbishop, 270.
 Arundelian marbles, 85, 342.
 Asa, 29.
 Ascalon, siege of, 224.
 Ascanius, 19, 23.
 Ascham, Roger, 326.
 Asclepiades, 98.
 Ashantee, 502, 577.
 Ashmole, Elias, 385.
 Aspasia, 68.
 Assassins, 207, 238.
 Assington, battle of, 193.
 Assisi, Francis of, 230.
 Assyria, 2, 38, 40, 43, 44, 48.
 Asturians, 164.
 Asylum for Female Orphans, 438, 444.
 Athaliah, 30, 35.
 Athamas, 12, 13.
 Athanasian creed, 137.
 Athanasius, *ib.*
 Atheling, Edgar, 195, 208.
 Athelston, 183.
 Athens, 6, 25, 30, 47, 68, 97.
 Atomic theory, 554.
 Attalus, 94.
 Atterbury, bishop, 412.
 Attila, 144, 145.

- Augurs, 45, 47.
 Augustan age of Greece, 62; of Rome, 108; of England, 394.
 Augustine, St., 141, 155.
 Augustus Cæsar, 105.
 Augustus II., Poland, 431.
 Aurelian, 133.
 Aurelius, 124.
 Aurlingzebe, 369.
 Ausonius, 140.
 Austerlitz, battle of, 486, 515, 522, 572.
 Austria, house of, 241, 481, 486.
 Auxiliary war, 89.
 Aversa, 199.
 Avicenna, 196.
 Avignon, popes at, 252, 273.
 Azore isles, 284.
 Baal, 31, 36.
 Baasha, 30.
 Babbage, Mr., 605.
 Babel, 2.
 Babylon, 38, 42, 45, 48; ruins, 99.
 Bacchus, 30.
 Bacon, Roger, 243; lord, 338; John, 556.
 Bagdad, 166, 199, 236.
 Bajazet, 260, 269.
 Baldwin, Latin emperor, 229.
 Balearic pirates, 94.
 Baliol, John, 239.
 Balloons, 563.
 Balue, La, 279.
 Bampton lectures, 565.
 Bands, 380.
 Bangorian controversy, 412.
 Bank of England, 392, 579; notes issue, 458; system, 579.
 Bannockburn, battle of, 248.
 Baptists, 303.
 Barbarossa, 302.
 Barbarossa, emperor, 219, 220.
 Barbauld, Mrs., 547.
 Bardanes, Philip, 164.
 Barlaam, 261.
 Barnet, battle of, 276.
 Barneveldt, 337, 339.
 Barometer, 357.
 Baronets, 342.
 Barrow, Isaac, 376.
 Barry, James, 555.
 Bartholomew, St., hospital, 312; massacre, 322, 323.
 Bartolozzi, 556.
 Basil, 140; emperor, 176; II., 193.
 Bastille, 469.
 Bath, order of, 270.
 Battle-abbey, 204.
 Baxter, 385.
 Bayard, 307.
 Bayle, 390.
 Bayonets, 392.
 Beef-eaters, 294.
 Beaton, cardinal, 305.
 Beattie, James, 538.
 Beaufort, cardinal, 275, 281.
 Becket, Thomas à, 217, 220, 221.
 Bede, 165.
 Bedouins, 168.
 Beethoven, 557.
 Belesis, 38, 39.
 Belgium independent, 610, 614.
 Belgrade, siege of, 410, 418.
 Belisarius, 152, 153.
 Bell, Dr. Andrew, 569.
 Bellarmine, 340.
 Bellino, 291.
 Bells, 141.
 Belshazzar, 53.
 Belsunce, 403.
 Beluchistan, 625.
 Belus, 10.
 Belzoni, 600.
 Benbow, admiral, 393.
 Benedict, St., 193; Benedictines, *ib.*
 Beneficence, British, 462.
 Benevolences, 268.
 Bentley, Dr. Richard, 411.
 Berengaria, 224.
 Berenger I., 180; II., 189.
 Bergbem, 374.
 Berkeley, bishop, 411.
 Bernadotte, 487, 488, 508, 515.
 Bernard, St., 215, 221.
 Bernouilli, James, 376.
 Berri, duchess de, insurrection of, 615.
 Bessarion, cardinal, 282.
 Bethlem hospital, 312.
 Bewick, 566.
 Bias, 53.
 Bible, 308.
 Billington, Mrs., 560.
 Bion, 83.
 Bishops, the seven, 383.
 Bisextile, 328.
 Black, Dr., 547.
 Black death, 255.
 Blackfriars, 234; bridge, 562.
 Black-hole, 427.
 Blacklock, Dr., 538.
 Blackstone, Sir William, 545.
 Blair, Hugh, 540.
 Black, admiral, 373.
 Blenheim, battle of, 393.
 Blind School, 567.
 Blood, circulation of, 341.
 Blood's conspiracy, 368.
 Bloomfield, Robert, 538.
 Blue-stocking club, 547.

- Boabdil, 294, 295.
 Boadicea, 115.
 Boccaccio, 261.
 Böhmen, 340.
 Boerhaave, 412.
 Boethius, 151.
 Bohemia, 190, 210, 273.
 Boileau, 389.
 Boleslaus I., 192.
 Boleyn, Anne, 301.
 Bolingbroke, lord, 413.
 Bolivar, 585.
 Bombs, 267.
 Bonaventure, 237.
 Bonchamps, marquis de, 480.
 Boniface, III., 155; St., 165; VIII., 243.
 Bonner, bishop, 313.
 Borgites, 266.
 Boris, 336.
 Boscobel, 361.
 Bosworth, battle of, 289.
 Botany-bay, 566.
 Bounty, mutiny of, 456.
 Bow-bridge, 209.
 Bowditch, 502.
 Bowdler, Jane, 547.
 Boyle, Robert, 384, 411.
 Boyne, battle of the, 386.
 Brahe, Tycho, 326.
 Brahminism, 625.
 Brandenburg family, 389.
 Brass, 414.
 Bray, vicar of, 327.
 Brazil, 585, 590.
 Bread, assize of, 229.
 Bread-fruit, 456.
 Brennus, 71, 84.
 Breslau, battle of, 445.
 Bridewell, 312.
 Bridge, first stone, 209.
 Bridgewater, duke of, 561; earl of, 599.
 Bridgewater treatises, 599.
 Brissotins, 473.
 Bristol riots, 611, 612.
 Britain, 100.
 Britannia, figure of, 380.
 Bronte, dukedom of, 531.
 Brown, Lancelot, 557.
 Bruce, king Robert, 240, 248; James, 534.
 Brunanburgh, battle of, 184.
 Bruno, St., 205.
 Brunswick-Oels, duke of, 488, 493, 494, 517, 520; duke Charles of, 613.
 Brutus, the elder, 56, 59; younger, 104, 105.
 Buchan, Dr., 548.
 Buchanan, George, 326.
 Buckingham, duke of, 350, 384.
 Buddhism, 625.
 Buffon, 552.
 Bulgaria, 163, 190, 193, 196, 199.
 Bull, golden, 256; John, 265.
 Bunker's-bill, battle of, 449, 571.
 Bunyan, John, 376.
 Buonaparte, Napoleon, 329, 450, 477; emperor, 481, 511; death, 585.
 Burchard, 196.
 Burckhardt, 534.
 Burgundy, 150.
 Buridan, 252.
 Burke, Edmund, 523.
 Burmese, 577, 625.
 Burn, Richard, 542.
 Burnet, bishop, 389.
 Burney, Charles, 558; Frances, 594.
 Burning of heretics, 313, 335.
 Burns, Robert, 536.
 Burton, 355.
 Bury, St. Edmund's, 176.
 Busby, Dr., 377.
 Buskin, 57.
 Butler, Samuel, 375; bishop, 437.
 Buxton, Jedidiah, 441.
 Byng, admiral, 418, 434.
 Byron, lord, 592.
 Byzantines, 46.
 Byzantium, *ib.*
 Cabal ministry, 360, 368.
 Cabochins, 273.
 Cabul, 624.
 Cade, Jack, 275, 277.
 Cadmus, 8.
 Cæcilius Metellus, 87.
 Cæsar, Julius, 100, 102, 103, 104.
 Cæsar, Sir Julius, 321, 339.
 Cairo, 189.
 Cakes, the burned, 179.
 Calais, 254, 256, 313, 314.
 Calais, death of, 463.
 Calculating engine, 244, 605.
 Calculus, the, 403, 554.
 Calendar, the, 103; French, 475, 478.
 Caligula, 113.
 Callcott, Dr., 603.
 Callimachus, 86.
 Calmar, union of, 266.
 Caloric, 552.
 Calpe mons, 397.
 Calvin, 311.
 Cambray league, 295.
 Cambridge university, 181, 308; earl of, 272.
 Cambyzes, 58, 626.
 Camden, 339.
 Camillus, 71.

- Camoens, 325.
 Campo Formio treaty, 486, 512.
 Canaanites, 3.
 Canada, 429, 445, 626.
 Canal, first English, 561.
 Canary isles, 263.
 Candaules, 45.
 Candles, 179, 247.
 Cannæ, battle of, 88.
 Canning, George, 593.
 Cannons, 263, 308.
 Canon law, 214.
 Canova, 556.
 Cantacuzenus, 261.
 Canterbury, see of, 155; tales, 221.
 Canute, 193, 194.
 Cape Verd isles, 284.
 Cape of Good Hope, 298, 379, 456.
 Capet, Hugh, 192.
 Capetian line, 192.
 Capitol, Roman, 120.
 Capitoline games, 120.
 Cappadocia, 55.
 Caracalla, 127.
 Caractacus, 114.
 Caranus, 38.
 Carausius, 135.
 Cardan, 326.
 Cardinals, 137.
 Carlos, Don, 164, 590, 614.
 Carolingians, 165.
 Carmelites, 215.
 Carneades, 93.
 Carnot, 477.
 Caroline, Queen, trial of, 575, 578.
 Carr, earl of Somerset, 332.
 Carrots, 308.
 Carter, Elizabeth, 546.
 Carthage, 36, 92, 144, 152, 626.
 Carthusians, 205.
 Carus, 134.
 Casimir IV., 282.
 Cassander, 82.
 Cassiodorus, 153.
 Castleresgh, lord, 593.
 Castles English, 212, 214.
 Castor and Pollux, 15.
 Castro, Inez de, 258.
 Castruccio, 261.
 Catania, 370.
 Catherine, empress, 413.
 Catholic emancipation, 455, 578, 584.
 Catiline, 100.
 Cato the Censor, 91; of Utica, 103.
 Cato-street conspiracy, 575, 578.
 Catullus, 108.
 Cauliac, 261.
 Cavaliers, 336.
 Caxton, 283, 286.
 Cecil, lord Burleigh, 321, 327.
 Cecilia, 126.
 Cecrops, 6.
 Celestines, 235.
 Cellarius, 391.
 Cellini, 311.
 Celsus, 108, 129.
 Censors, 58.
 Cervantes, 339.
 Ceylon, 298, 456, 495.
 Chabrias, 73.
 Chaldea, 2, 38.
 Chamberlaine's riot, 240.
 Chambers, Sir William, 556.
 Chancery, court of, 204.
 Chapone, Hester, 546.
 Charitable corporation, 416.
 Charity-schools, 392.
 Charlemagne, 165, 168, 170.
 Charlemont, earl of, 458.
 Charles I., England, 342, 346; II., 357.
 Charles III., Spain, 368; III., 481; IV., 481, 516.
 Charles III., France, 181, 183; V., 259; VI., 273; VII., 279; VIII., 296; IX., 322, 323; X., 588, 610.
 Charles V., emperor, 304; VI., 395, 397.
 Charles XII., Sweden, 395, 398, 407, 409; XIII., 488; XIV., 488.
 Charles the Bold, 279.
 Charlotte Queen, 446, princess, 462.
 Charter-house, 341.
 Charybdis, 20.
 Chatham, earl of, 433.
 Chatterton, Thomas, 537.
 Chaucer, 261.
 Chelsea, 413.
 Chæroneæ, battle of, 75.
 Chess, 29.
 Chesterfield, earl of, 436.
 Cheyne, Dr., 437.
 Chiaroscuro, 298.
 Chichester, 150.
 Children, sale of, 191.
 Chilo, 49.
 Chimneysweeps, 547.
 China, 2, 59; wall, 89, 241, 259; trade, 613.
 Cholera, Asiatic, 611.
 Chosroes, 152, 153.
 Chouans, 477.
 CHRIST, advent of, 106; public life of, 109.
 Christ's hospital, 312.
 Christians, first called, 112; increase of, 192.
 Christiana, queen of Sweden, 353.
 Christinos, the, 614.

- Christophe of Hayti, 481.
 Chrysostom, St., 143.
 Churches, Seven of Asia, 112; Greek and Latin, 180; of England, 328; Episcopal of Scotland, 335.
 Churchill, Charles, 435.
 Chynilidan, 48.
 Cibber, Colley, 436.
 Cicero, 100, 105.
 Cid, the, 198.
 Cimabue, 235.
 Cimbric war, 96.
 Cimon, 67.
 Cincius, 192.
 Cinq Mars, 337.
 Cinque-ports, 229.
 Cintra, convention of, 482.
 Circe, 20.
 Circuits, judicial, 218.
 Cistercians, 207.
 Ciudad Rodrigo, siege, 484.
 Civil wars, English, 349.
 Clapperton, Hugh, 596.
 Clarence, death of the duke of, 285.
 Clarendon, earl of, 373, 381.
 Clarke, Dr. Samuel, 412; Dr. Edw. 534; Dr. Adam, 602.
 Claude, 373.
 Claudius I., 114; II., 133.
 Clemens, 121.
 Clement XIV., 524.
 Clementines, 266.
 Cleobulus, 53.
 Cleomenes, 87.
 Cleopatra, 104.
 Clive, lord, 418, 432, 532.
 Clocks, 176, 179.
 Clontarf, battle of, 192.
 Clovis, 149.
 Coaches, 317.
 Coals, 238, 244.
 Coats of arms, 225.
 Cobbett, William, 598.
 Cobham, lord, 271.
 Cocking, Mr., 565.
 Cock-lane ghost, 454.
 Cocles, 59.
 Codrington, admiral, 587.
 Codrus, 25.
 Coins, 37, 85, 238, 263, 298, 312, 342.
 Coke, Sir Edward, 356.
 Colbert, 372, 396.
 Colburn, Zerach, 441.
 Coleridge, Samuel, 594.
 Colet, 305.
 Coligni, admiral, 322.
 Collier, Jeremy, 401.
 Collins, William, 435.
 Colonna family, 243, 251, 257.
 Colossus, 87.
 Columba, St., 156.
 Columbia, 585.
 Columbus, 296.
 Combe, Mr., 596.
 Comedy, 51.
 Comet, the great, 461.
 Comines, 279, 307.
 Commodus, 125.
 Common-lands, 245.
 Commons, house of, 233, 277.
 Comneni, 59, 199, 205, 211.
 Companions' league, 256.
 Condé, the Great, 372, 396.
 Confucius, 59.
 Congreve, 401.
 Constantine, the Great, 137, 138; Paleologus, 278.
 Constantinople, 278.
 Constantius, 136.
 Consuls, 57, 58, 71, 152.
 Continental system, 516.
 Convention, French, 476.
 Cook, captain, 533.
 Copernicus, 306.
 Copts, 626.
 Copyholds, 245.
 Corcyra, 45, 622.
 Cordova, Kaliphate of, 167, 189, 196.
 Corelli, 401.
 Corfu, 45, 622.
 Corinth, 11, 30, 40, 45, 46, 71, 93.
 Coriolanus, 60.
 Cornaro, Luigi, 327; Lucretia, 377.
 Corneille, 375.
 Cornwall, 151.
 Corcebus, 39.
 Coronation oath, 190.
 Correggio, 307.
 Coryphæus, 57.
 Coraica, 424.
 Coraned, 198.
 Cortez, 304, 306.
 Corunna, battle of, 483, 572.
 Councils, general, 137.
 Courcy, Sir John de, 231.
 Court and country parties, 416.
 Covenanters, 344, 367.
 Cowley, 375.
 Cowper, William, 534.
 Crabbe, George, 598.
 Cracow, 624.
 Craniology, 569.
 Cranmer, archbishop, 316.
 Crassus, 98, 102.
 Creation, 1.
 Crete, 11, 98, 171.
 Crecy battle, 254, 260.
 Crichton, James, 326.

- Critical philosophy, 549.
 Crossus, 39, 52, 54.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 345, 358, 371.
 Crotona, 57.
 Crowns, Roman, 41.
 Crucifixion, 112.
 Crusades, 207, 215, 220, 226, 234.
 Crusoe, 401.
 Cups, 247.
 Curfew, 204, 209.
 Curran, John, 525.
 Currants, 308, 495.
 Curtius Metius, 71; Quintus, 118.
 Custine, 474.
 Customs, 356.
 Cuvier, 604.
 Cuyp, 373.
 Cyaxares I., 48; of Persia, 54, 55.
 Cyclades, 17.
 Cylon, 30.
 Cynics, 74, 78.
 Cyprian, 151.
 Cypselus, 30, 46.
 Cyrenaica, 74.
 Cyrene, 96.
 Cyril, 140, 143.
 Cyrus the Great, 54, 56; younger, 68, 69, 70.
 Czar, title of, 410.
 Dacier, 403.
 Dædalus, 17.
 Dahlias, 605.
 D'Alembert, 550.
 Damascenus, 166.
 Damascus, 162.
 Damocles, 73.
 Damon, 73.
 Danaus, 10.
 Dandolo, doge, 226.
 Danes, piratical, 160, 191, 195.
 Danegelt, 191.
 Daniel, 49, 51, 53, 54.
 Dante, 243.
 Dautric, 219.
 Darius Hystaspes, 58; Codomanus, 77;
 Nothus, 68.
 D'Arteville, 254, 256, 273.
 Darwin, Erasmus, 538.
 Dating, 40.
 David, king of Israel, 25.
 David I., Scotland, 215.
 Davy, Sir Humphry, 570, 600.
 Deaf and Dumb asylum, 571.
 Dearth, 277.
 Deborah, 13.
 Debt, national, 386, 416.
 Decalogue, 10.
 Decemvirs, 58.
 Decius Mus, 75; Decius, 130.
 Dee, John, 317.
 Defoe, 401.
 Dehales, 237.
 Delhi, conquest of, 431.
 Deluge, 2.
 Demesne land, 245.
 Demetrius, 83.
 Democritus, 63.
 Demosthenes, 76.
 Denham Sir John, 375.
 Denmark, early, 71, 219; absolute, 369.
 D-ontology 408.
 De Retz, cardinal, 396.
 De Ruyter, admiral 381.
 Descartes, 355.
 Despard's conspiracy, 459.
 Dispenser, 248.
 Dessalines, 480.
 Dettingen, battle of, 417, 432, 445.
 Deucalion, 7.
 De Witt, 372.
 Dialects, 4.
 Diana, temple of, 75.
 Diarrhœa, 301.
 Dictator, 58.
 Dibdin, Charles, 458.
 Dido, 19, 36.
 Diderot, 350.
 Dilemma, 252.
 Dinocrates, 81.
 Diocletian, 135.
 Diogenes, 78; Laertius, 125.
 Dionysius, elder, 68, 73; younger, 75.
 Directory, French, 477.
 Discovery expeditions, 179.
 Dissenters' Acts, 367.
 Distemper, 269.
 Diving-bell, 562.
 Docks, New London & West India, 571.
 Dodd, Dr., 455.
 Doddridge, Dr., 414.
 Domenichino, 354.
 Domesday book, 205.
 Domingo St., revolt, 480.
 Dominicans, 234.
 Domitian, 119.
 Donatists, 138.
 Doria, admiral, 322.
 Dorians, 23, 26.
 Dort, 278.
 Douglas, bishop, 544; David, 605.
 Douw, Gerard, 374.
 Draco, 47.
 Drake, Sir Francis, 327.
 Dryden, 390.
 Dublin university, 252.
 Dubois, abbé, 432.
 Ducas, emperor, 229.
 Dugdale, 376.
 Dulwich college, 341.

- Dumourier, general, 471, 473, 477.
 Duncan, admiral, 532.
 Dunstan, St., 186, 187, 189, 194.
 Dust-trade, 565.
 Dyer, John, 436.
 Earl, first, 176.
 Earthenware, 252.
 Earthquake, 219, 424.
 Eastern empire, 141, 199, 220, 229, 236, 278.
 Ecclesiasticus, 93.
 Eclipse, first recorded, 44.
 Edgar, king, 188.
 Edgehill, battle of, 345, 350.
 Edmund I., 185; Ironside, 193, 195, 197.
 Edred, king, 186.
 Education, national, 569.
 Edward, Elder, 180; martyr, 190; confessor, 197.
 Edward I., 238; II., 247; III., 253. Black Prince, 253; IV., 285; V., 287. VI., 308.
 Edwy, king, 187.
 Eddystone lighthouse, 422.
 Egbert, king, 171.
 Eglon, 12.
 Egypt, 2, 46, 235, 266, 302, 492, 626.
 Ehud, 12.
 Elah, 30.
 Elba, 519.
 Eldon, earl of, 593.
 Eleanor, queen, 238.
 Electricity, 443, 551.
 Eleusinian mysteries, 12.
 Elfrida, 188, 190.
 El-Hakkam, 189, 196.
 Eli, 23.
 Elijah, 31, 32.
 Eliah, 33, 34, 36, 37.
 Elizabeth, queen, 317, 320, 321.
 Elizabeth, of France, 475; of Russia, 424.
 Ella, 150.
 Elliot, general, 469.
 Elwes, John, 526.
 Elzevir, 340.
 Empedocles, 64.
 England, 144, 151, 171, 177, 209, 301.
 Enghien, duke of, 515.
 Ennius, 89.
 Epaminondas, 71.
 Epictetus, 120, 122.
 Epirus, 85.
 Epicurus, 84.
 Epimenides, 53.
 Episcopacy abol. in Scotland, 387.
 Epson races, 609.
 Erasmus, 306.
 Eratosthenes, 90.
 Eratosthratus, 75.
 Erigena, 180.
 Erakine, lord, 543.
 Essenes, 94.
 Essex, earl of, 318, 320.
 Estampes, duchess of, 303.
 Esther, 65.
 Eteocles, 16.
 Ethelbald, 175.
 Ethelbert, 175.
 Ethelred, I., 176; II., 190.
 Ethelwolf, 172.
 Eton college, 284.
 Etruria, 47.
 Euclid, 82.
 Eudocia, empress, 205.
 Eugene, prince, 412.
 Euler, 552.
 Eumolpus, 12.
 Euripides, 64.
 Eurydice, 15.
 Eutropius, 139.
 Eutyches, 146.
 Evander, 22.
 Evelyn, 391.
 Exchange, royal, 328, 380, 580.
 Exchequer court, 204.
 Excise, 356.
 Exmouth, lord, 499.
 Ezekiel, 49, 51.
 Fabian, 150.
 Fabius, Maximus, 89.
 Fabre, d'Eglantine, 475, 478.
 Fabii, 60.
 Fabricius, 86.
 Faineans, 165.
 Fairfax, lord, 356.
 Falkland, lord, 353.
 Famine, 429, 336.
 Farinelli, 558.
 Fases, 41.
 Fates, 49.
 Fatima, 157, 160.
 Fatimites, 183, 219.
 Fauntleroy, Mr., 581.
 Fawkes, Guy, 333.
 Federative republicanism, 479.
 Felix, 134.
 Felltham, Owen, 376.
 Fenelon, 390.
 Ferdinand, of Arragon, 286; of Castile, 295, 296, 297.
 Ferdinand, VI., of Spain, 430; VII., 454, 481, 493, 589.
 Feudal laws, 205.
 Fiefs, 183.
 Field of Cloth of Gold, 299, 302.

- Fielding, Henry, 438.
 Fifth Monarchy men, 368.
 Fire of London, 365.
 Fitz-Gerald, lord Edward, 458.
 Fitz-Osbert, 225.
 Flagellants, 236.
 Flaminius, 90.
 Flammock's, rebellion, 294.
 Flamstead house, 380.
 Flaxman, John, 556.
 Fleuri, cardinal, 432.
 Flodden, battle of, 296, 299.
 Florence, 235.
 Florus, 123.
 Foote, Samuel, 560.
 Fontenelle, 440.
 Fontenoy, battle of, 173, 432, 445.
 Forest laws, 205.
 Foscari, Francis, 282.
 Fothergill, Dr., 547.
 Foundling hospital, 442.
 Fox, bishop, 297; Charles, 522.
 France, early, 131, 135, 143, 149, 163, 165, 168; advanced, 170, 181, 183, 184, 192, 210, 215, 220, 221, 226, 230, 235, 237, 244, 259, 273, 279, 285, 296, 303, 314, 322, 323, 337, 396, 432, 467, 469, 588, 614, 615.
 Francia, Dr., 586.
 Francis of Lorraine, 430.
 Francis II., of Austria, 486.
 Francis I., of France, 303; II., 323.
 Franciscans, 230.
 Franking, 380.
 Franklin, Dr., 443, 448, 551.
 Frederick I., emperor, 221; prince of Wales, 415, 417, 433, 465.
 Frederick I., Prussia, 433; II. (Great), *ib.*
 Frederick Augustus, Poland, 395, 398.
 Frederickshall, siege, 401.
 Free companies, 273.
 Freeholds, 245.
 Freemasons, 184.
 French, academy, 357; revolution, 469.
 Friars, four orders of, 141.
 Friedland, battle of, 572.
 Fronde faction, 396.
 Frost, severe, 461.
 Fuller, Thomas, 356.
 Funds, the, 580.
 Furies, 49.
 Fuseli, Henry, 555.
 Gaelic language, 92.
 Gainsborough, Thomas, 555.
 Galba, 117.
 Galen, 125.
 Galeotti, 279.
 Galerius, 126.
 Galileo, 338.
 Galland, 390.
 Gallienus, 132.
 Gallus, 131.
 Galvanism, 552, 571.
 Gama, Vasco di, 297.
 Games, Grecian, 9.
 Gauganelli, 524.
 Gardiner, bishop, 313, 314.
 Garrick, David, 558.
 Garter, order of, 263.
 Gas-lighting, 567.
 Gascoigne, Sir William, 270.
 Gasconade, 155.
 Gaskin, George, D.D. 335.
 Gascon, de Foix, 296, 308.
 Gaston, duke of Orleans, 337.
 Gaunt, John of, 253.
 Gaveston, Piers, 248.
 Gay, John, 403.
 Gaza, Theodore, 287.
 Gazette, 356.
 Gazna, empire of, 215.
 Geminiani, 412.
 Genserik, 144, 145.
 Gentiles, 112.
 George, St., 136.
 George, I., 406; II., 415; III., 440, 458, 460; IV., 574.
 Germanicus, 113.
 Germany, 168, 170, 192, 209, 219, 220, 226, 251, 277, 304, 395, 397, 430, 481, 486, 487, 496.
 Gewner, 551.
 Gibbon, Edward, 541.
 Gibraltar, 164, 397, 469.
 Gideon, 15.
 Gilpin Sawrey, 556; William, *ib.*
 Giotto, 244.
 Gipsies, 277.
 Giraldus, Cambrensis, 231.
 Girgenti, 55.
 Giroi diets, 473.
 Glaker, 199.
 Glauville, 222.
 Glasgow, university, 284.
 Glass, 162, 284, 317.
 Glencoe, massacre, 387.
 Glover, Richard, 537.
 Gobelines tapestry, 396.
 Gods, heathen, 10, 11.
 Godoy, Manuel, 481.
 Godwin, earl, 194; sands, 207.
 Gold coined, 263.
 Goldsmith, Oliver, 537.
 Goliath, 24.
 Gondebaud, 150.
 Gonzalva de Cordova, 296, 297.
 Gordian, 129; knot, 80.

- Gnostics, 123.
 Goethe, 596.
 Gordon, lord George, 455.
 Gospels, 112, 114, 115; society, 392.
 Gothic architecture, 167.
 Goths, 142, 153, 164.
 Gower, 261.
 Gowrie conspiracy, 331.
 Gracchi, 68, 94.
 Graces, 49.
 Granada, 235, 295.
 Granicus, 79.
 Grand Seigneur, 243.
 Gratian, 140, 214.
 Gravitation, 338.
 Gray Thomas, 435.
 Greatracks, Valentine, 377.
 Grecian empire, 78, 82, 410.
 Greece, Modern, 577, 587, 593.
 Greenland, 267.
 Gregory V., 192; VII., 209; XIII., 328.
 Gregory Nazianzen, 140.
 Grey, lady Jane, 309, 315.
 Grimaldi, Joseph, 561.
 Grotius, 339.
 Guarino, 287.
 Guatemala, 586.
 Guelphs and Ghibellines, 214, 250.
 Guiana, 586.
 Guildhall, London, 270.
 Guinea coast, 287.
 Guise family, 314, 323.
 Gunpowder, 243, 263; plot, 332.
 Gunter, 355.
 Gustavus Adolphus, 337, 352.
 Gustavus III., 478; IV., 488.
 Guy, earl of Warwick, 185.
 Guy, Thomas, 414.
 Guy's hospital, 414.
 Guyon, Madame, 369.
 Gyges, 39, 45.
 Habeas corpus act, 360, 380.
 Hañz, 261.
 Hair-powder, 341.
 Hale, Sir Matthew, 376.
 Halidon-hill, battle of, 260.
 Hall, bishop, 354.
 Haller, Dr., 548.
 Halley, Dr., 413.
 Hampden, John, 344, 350, 356.
 Handel, 440.
 Hannibal, 88, 89.
 Hanover, 418, 432, 622.
 Hanse-towns, 215, 624.
 Hanway, Jonas, 561.
 Hapsburg, house of, 241.
 Hardicanute, 195.
 Harold I., 195; II., 197, 200, 201.
 Haroun al Raschid, 167, 169.
 Harris, James, 546.
 Harrison, John, 561.
 Harrow school, 328.
 Harvey, Dr., 341.
 Hawes, Dr., 562.
 Hastings, battle, 200.
 Hastings, Warren, 456.
 Hawke, admiral, 434.
 Hawkwood, Sir John, 261.
 Hady, 557.
 Hayley, William, 538.
 Heat, 548.
 Heber, bishop, 596.
 Heberden, Dr., 547.
 Hegira, 158.
 Helen, 18.
 Helena, St., 298, 329, 521.
 Heliogabalus, 127.
 Heloise, 211.
 Hellespont, 13.
 Helvetic confederacy, 250, 478.
 Helvetius, 439.
 Hemans, Felicia, 601.
 Hengist, 144.
 Henry I., England, 208; II., 217; III., 232; IV., 268; V., 270, 271, 272; VI., 274; VII., 267, 292, 298.
 Henry II., France, 314; III., IV., 323.
 Henry IV., Emperor, 209; VI., 226; VII., 251.
 Henry, prince of Portugal, 282.
 Henry of Huntingdon, 222.
 Hephæstion, 79, 81.
 Heptarchy, 144, 150, 151, 152, 154, 155, 163.
 Heraclidæ, 23, 24, 26, 38, 39, 43.
 Heraclitus, 59.
 Heraclius, 154.
 Herald's college, 263.
 Herbert, George, 355.
 Herculaneum, 397, 508.
 Hercules, 6.
 Herod the Great, 99, 104; Antipas, 109, 113.
 Herodians, 106.
 Herodotus, 63.
 Herrick, 375.
 Herschel, Sir William, 551.
 Hervey, James, 437.
 Hesham, 163.
 Hesiod, 33.
 Hesychasts, 251.
 Hesychius, 137.
 Heylyn, Dr. Peter, 356.
 Hezekiah, 44.
 Highlanders, 265.
 Hill, Rowland, 601.
 Hindustan, 80, 192, 624.

- Hipparchus, 95.
 Hippocrates, 63, 125.
 Hiram, 27.
 Hoadley, bishop, 412.
 Hobart, bishop, 598.
 Hofer, 490.
 Hoffman, 376.
 Hogarth, 440.
 Hogg, James, 595.
 Hogue, La, battle of, 388.
 Holbein, 306.
 Holland, 322, 337, 372, 396, 424.
 Hollar, 354.
 Homer, 33.
 Homœopathy, 607.
 Honorius, 141.
 Hood, Robin, 225.
 Hooker, 340.
 Hooper, bishop, 313.
 Hope, Thomas, 598.
 Hops, 308.
 Horace, 108.
 Horatii, 45.
 Horne, bishop, 409, 544.
 Horse-guards, 312.
 Horticulture, 298.
 Hoshea, 40, 43.
 Houlagou, 236, 237.
 Hoveden, Roger, 231.
 Howard, John, 542.
 Howe's victory, 571.
 Hudson's bay company, 380.
 Hudson, Sir Geoffrey, 353.
 Hugh, the great, 186.
 Hughes, John, 402.
 Huguenots, 322, 323, 337.
 Humane society, 562.
 Hume, David, 540.
 Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, 268, 281.
 Hungary, 383, 396.
 Huns, 140, 142, 144, 145.
 Hunt, Henry, 454, 462, 595.
 Hunter, Dr. 548; John, 548.
 Hunting, 609.
 Hupilay, 241.
 Hurd, bishop, 546.
 Hurricane, 468.
 Huss, John, 270.
 Hutchinsonians, 251, 408.
 Hutton, Charles, 553.
 Hyder Ally, 524.
 Hydrostatics, 90.
 Hyperides, 78.
 Hypochondriasis, 384, 535.
 Hyrcanus, I., 94; II., 99, 104.
 Iambic metre, 46.
 Ibn Doried, 183.
 Icarus, 17.
 Iceland, 179.
 Iconoclasts, 166.
 Ida, 152, 158.
 Ides, 41.
 Iloarudan, 52.
 Inn, 163.
 Iloachus, 5.
 Incendiarism, 611.
 Income-tax, 458.
 Independents, 350.
 India company, East, 328, 429.
 India-rubber clothing, 618.
 Infant schools, 570, 599.
 Inglis, bishop, 443.
 Ingulphus, 206.
 Innocent III., 231; XI., 390.
 Ino, 12, 13.
 Inoculation, 414.
 Inquisition, 229.
 Insurance offices, 380.
 Interest, 238, 405, 578.
 Investitures, 209.
 Iona, 156.
 Ionian isles, 495.
 Ionians, 26.
 Iphicrates, 70.
 Ipsus, battle of, 82.
 Ireland, 145, 192, 218, 458, 459.
 Ireland, Samuel, 546.
 Irenæus, 126.
 Irving, Edward, 602.
 Isaac Angelus, 220, 229.
 Isaiab, 42.
 Iscanus, 226.
 Ishmaelites, 5.
 Isidorus, 158.
 Isocrates, 76.
 Israel, kingdom of, 24, 28, 44; tribes, 5.
 Isthmian games, 12.
 Italy, 189.
 Ithaca, 622.
 Ivry, battle of, 321, 327.
 Jacobins, 234, 469.
 Jaffa massacre, 513.
 Jair, 21.
 Jamaica, 379.
 James I., Scotland, 269, 278; II., 278, III., 291; IV., 296; V., 303.
 James I., England, 330; II., 381.
 James's, St., palace, 308.
 Janizaries, 263, 586.
 Jannæus, 96.
 Jansenists, 352, 432.
 Japan, 241.
 Jason, 13.
 Jeffreys, judge, 383.
 Jehonah, 36, 48.
 Jehonah, 37.

- Jehoida, 35.
 Jehoashin, 48, 52.
 Jehoiakim, 48.
 Jehoram, 35.
 Jehosaphat, 30.
 Jehu, 32, 36.
 Jena, battle of, 572.
 Jenghiz Khan, 215, 230, 238.
 Jenner, Dr., 566.
 Jephtha, 21.
 Jeremiah, 50.
 Jeroboam I., 28; II., 38.
 Jerome, St., 143; of Prague, 269.
 Jerusalem, 61, 112, 118.
 Jesuits, 306, 432, 467.
 Jesus, son of Sirach, 93.
 Jewel, bishop, 326.
 Jews, dispersion of, 118.
 Jezabel, 31, 32.
 Joan of Arc, 275, 279, 280.
 Joash, 36.
 Job, 6.
 Jocasta, 14.
 John the baptist, 109, 113; evangelist, 112, 120.
 John XII., pope, 187; XVI., 192.
 John II., France, 259.
 John, king of England, 227.
 John I., Portugal, 267, 331; V., 431; VI., 485, 590.
 John Zimisces, 188; of Gaunt, 267.
 Johnson, Samuel, 539.
 Joint stock companies, 577.
 Jomelli, 558.
 Jonah, 37.
 Jones, Inigo, 354; William, 409, 544; Paul, 533. Sir William, 537.
 Jonson, Ben, 339.
 Joram, 31.
 Jordan, Mrs., 560.
 Jortin, John, 542.
 Joseph, 5.
 Joseph I., Portugal, 431.
 Joseph II., Germany, 486.
 Josephus, 118.
 Joshua, 10.
 Josiah, 46.
 Jotham, 17, 40.
 Jovian, 139.
 Jubilee, 247, 460.
 Judah, kingdom of, 28, 49, 51, 99, 159.
 Julian the apostate, 138.
 Julius Africanus, 128.
 Jupiter Ammon, temple of, 626.
 Juries, 190.
 Justin Martyr, 124.
 Justin I., 150. II., 154.
 Justinian I., 152; II., 162, 163, 164.
 Juvenal, 122.
 Juxon, bishop, 345.
 Kaimes, lord, 546.
 Kalends, 41.
 Kamachatka, 392.
 Kant, 549.
 Karaites, 155.
 Katherine's hospital, St., 214; docks, 607.
 Kauffman, Angelica, 555.
 Kean, Edmund, 559.
 Kemble, John, *ib.*
 Kempis, Thomas à, 281.
 Keno, bishop, 383, 384.
 Kennedy, archbishop, 291.
 Kennicott, Benjamin, 545.
 Kennington Oval, 264.
 Kent, James, 558.
 Kepler, 654.
 Kett's rebellion, 310.
 King's evil, 198.
 King's college, 618.
 Kingston, Surrey, 180, 193.
 Klopstock, 539.
 Knives, 247, 328.
 Knox, John, 318, 319, 325.
 Knox, Vicesimus, 542.
 Kosciusko, 480.
 Kotzebue, 549.
 Kouli Khan, 424, 431.
 Laconiam, 35.
 Lactantius, 137.
 Lacteals, 380.
 Lagrange, 553.
 Lamb, Charles, 603.
 Lampeter college, 178.
 Lancaster family, 290.
 Lander, 598.
 Lands, English, 245, 301.
 Land-tax, 178, 392.
 Langton, cardinal, 228, 230.
 Laplace, 553.
 Lardner, Dr., 439.
 Lares, 41.
 Latimer, bishop, 314.
 Latin in Poland, 282.
 Laud, archbishop, 352.
 Laureate, 267.
 Lavalette, escape of, 496.
 Lavater, 550.
 Lavoisier, 552.
 Law's bubble, 423, 432.
 Law-courts and terms, 204.
 Lawrence, St., 132.
 Lawrence, Sir Thomas, 594.
 League, French, 323.
 Leander, 14.
 Leap-year, 444.
 Legion, Roman, 41; of honour, 514.

GENERAL INDEX.

251

- Jehoida, 35.
 Jehoachin, 48, 52.
 Jehoiakim, 48.
 Jehoram, 35.
 Jehosaphat, 30.
 Jehu, 32, 36.
 Jena, battle of, 572.
 Jenghiz Khan, 215, 230, 238.
 Jenner, Dr., 566.
 Jephtha, 21.
 Jeremiah, 50.
 Jeroboam I., 28; II., 38.
 Jerome, St., 143; of Prague, 269.
 Jerusalem, 61, 112, 118.
 Jesuits, 306, 432, 467.
 Jesus, son of Sirach, 93.
 Jewel, bishop, 326.
 Jews, dispersion of, 118.
 Jezabel, 31, 32.
 Joan of Arc, 275, 279, 280.
 Joash, 36.
 Job, 6.
 Jocasta, 14.
 John the baptist, 109, 113; evangelist, 112, 120.
 John XII., pope, 187; XVI., 192.
 John II., France, 259.
 John, king of England, 227.
 John I., Portugal, 267, 331; V., 431; VI., 485, 590.
 John Zimisce, 188; of Gaunt, 267.
 Johnson, Samuel, 539.
 Joint stock companies, 577.
 Jomelli, 558.
 Jonab, 37.
 Jones, Inigo, 354; William, 409, 544; Paul, 533. Sir William, 537.
 Jonson, Ben, 339.
 Joram, 31.
 Jordan, Mrs., 560.
 Jortin, John, 542.
 Joseph, 5.
 Joseph I., Portugal, 431.
 Joseph II., Germany, 486.
 Josephus, 118.
 Joshua, 10.
 Josiah, 46.
 Jotham, 17, 40.
 Jovian, 139.
 Jubilee, 247, 460.
 Judah, kingdom of, 28, 49, 51, 99, 159.
 Julian the apostate, 138.
 Julius Africanus, 128.
 Jupiter Ammon, temple of, 626.
 Juries, 190.
 Justin Martyr, 124.
 Justin I., 150. II., 154.
 Justinian I., 132; II., 162, 163, 164.
 I., 122.
 Jazon, bishop, 345.
 Kaimes, lord, 546.
 Kalends, 41.
 Kamschatka, 392.
 Kunt, 519.
 Karaites, 155.
 Katherine's hospital, St., 214; docks, 607.
 Kauffman, Angelica, 555.
 Kean, Edmund, 559.
 Kemble, John, ib.
 Kempia, Thomas à, 281.
 Kenn, bishop, 383, 384.
 Kennedy, archbishop, 291.
 Kennicott, Benjamin, 545.
 Kennington Oval, 264.
 Kent, James, 558.
 Kepler, 654.
 Kett's rebellion, 310.
 King's evil, 198.
 King's college, 618.
 Kingston, Surrey, 180, 193.
 Klopstock, 539.
 Knives, 247, 328.
 Knox, John, 318, 319, 325.
 Knox, Vicesimus, 542.
 Kosciusko, 480.
 Kotzebue, 549.
 Kouli Khan, 424, 431.
 Laconiam, 35.
 Lactantius, 137.
 Lacteals, 380.
 Lagrange, 553.
 Lamb, Charles, 683.
 Lampeter college, 178.
 Lancaster family, 490.
 Lander, 598.
 Lands, English, 245, 301.
 Land-tax, 178, 392.
 Langton, cardinal, 228, 230.
 Laplace, 533.
 Lardner, Dr., 439.
 Larus, 41.
 Latimer, bishop, 314.
 Latin in Poland, 282.
 Laud, archbishop, 352.
 Laureate, 267.
 Lavette, escape of, 496.
 Lavater, 550.
 Lavoirier, 552.
 Law's bubble, 423, 452.
 Law-courts and terms, 204.
 Lawrence, St., 132.
 Lawrence, Sir Thomas, 594.
 League, French, 523.
 Leander, 14.
 Leap-year, 144.
 Legion, Roman, 11; of Rome, 11.

- Leibnitz, 403.
 Leicester, earl of, 232, 318, 320.
 — Sir John, 596.
 Leipsic, battle of, 453, 487, 572.
 Leland, 37.
 Lely, Sir Peter, 354.
 Leo I., II., 149; III., 164; X., 301.
 Leon, kingdom of, 171.
 Leonidas, 60.
 Leopold II., Germany, 486.
 Lepanto, battle of, 322.
 Leprosy, 249.
 Lerna, duke of, 337.
 Lesage, 411.
 Letters, invented, 5.
 Lettsom, Dr., 547.
 Levites, 112.
 Lewis, Monk, 541.
 Libation, 41.
 Library, Alexandrian, 159.
 Licinus, 71.
 Lictors, 41.
 Life-boats, 571.
 Lightining, 443.
 Lima, earthquake, 494.
 Lincoln, earthquake, 219.
 Lincoln's-inn society, 252.
 Linen, 238.
 Linnæus, 439.
 Linus, 17.
 Lisbon, earthquake, 424.
 Lithography, 567.
 Liturgy, English, 312.
 Livy, 108.
 Llewellyn, prince, 233, 239.
 Loadstone, 415.
 Locke, John, 389.
 Lodbrog, Regner, 171.
 Logan, John, 540.
 Logarithms, 341.
 Lollards, 265, 271.
 Lombard, Peter, 222.
 Lombards, 154, 165, 168.
 Lombard merchants, 240.
 London, 114, 219, 229, 274, 284, 336;
 plague, 363; fire, 364, 365; new
 bridge, 582; university, 618.
 Longchamp, bishop, 223, 226.
 Longinus, 134.
 Longitude, 561.
 Looking-glasses, 247.
 Lords lieutenant, 312.
 Lottery, 328, 392.
 Louis IV., 184; VI., 210; VII., 215,
 221; IX., 235, 237; XI., 279, 285;
 XII., 296; XIII., 337; XIV., 396;
 XV., 432; XVI., 467, 469; XVII.,
 467, 477; XVIII., 493, 588.
 Louis Philip I., 614.
 Louvre, 396.
 Lowth, bishop, 544.
 Loyola, 306.
 Lucan, 116.
 Lucian, 125.
 Lucretia, 56.
 Lucretius, 99.
 Lucullus, *ib.*
 Luddites, 461.
 Luitprand, 186.
 Luke, St., 112.
 Luneville, treaty of, 486.
 Lusignan, Guy, 220, 225.
 Lustrum, 52.
 Luther, 305.
 Lutzen, battle of, 352.
 Lycophron, 86.
 Lycurgus, 35.
 Lydia, 39, 45, 54.
 Lyons, massacre, 479.
 Lyra, 259.
 Lyre, 46.
 Lysander, 62, 68, 69.
 Lysimachus, 82.
 Lysippus, 81.
 Macadamization, 263.
 Macbeth, 199.
 Maccabees, 91, 105.
 MacCarthy, Sir Charles, 577.
 Macedon, 38, 75, 91.
 Machiavel, 307.
 Mackenzie, Henry, 546.
 Mackintosh, Mr., 618.
 Madagascar, 298.
 Madeira isles, 274.
 Magdalen charity, 438, 444, 445, 561.
 Magellan, 306.
 Magic lantern, 380.
 Magna charta, 228.
 Mahogany, 586.
 Mahmoud Khan II., 586, 621.
 Mahomet, 154, 156.
 Maida, battle of, 572.
 Maiming act, 269.
 Mainfroi, 236.
 Malachi, 72.
 Malplaquet, battle of, 394.
 Mallet, David, 436.
 Malta, 451, 480.
 Malthus, 596.
 Mamluks, 235, 266, 492.
 Man, tale of, 262, 391, 454.
 Manasseh, 42, 45.
 Manco Capac, 222.
 Manetho, 86.
 Manichees, 133.
 Mamilus Torquatus, 76.
 Manorial rights, 245.

- Mansfield, earl of, 456, 525.
 Manumission, 41.
 Maranon, the trappist, 589.
 Marathon, battle of, 58, 59.
 Marat, 473.
 Marcellus, 89.
 March, earl of, 268, 272.
 Marcian, 144.
 Mardonius, 59.
 Marengo, battle of, 514, 572.
 Margaret, of Anjou, 274, 275.
 Maria Teresa, emprs., 397, 416, 429, 432.
 Maria, I., Portugal, 485; II., 586.
 Marie Antoinette, queen, 474.
 Marignan, battle of, 302.
 Mariner's compass, 245.
 Marius, 97.
 Mark, St., 115.
 Marlborough, duke of, 402.
 Marmontel, 550.
 Marr and Williamson, murders of, 460.
 Marseilles, 54, 479.
 Marston Moor, battle of, 350.
 Martel, Charles, 165.
 Martial, 120.
 Martyr's era, 135.
 Martyr, first English, 269.
 Mary I., England, 312; II., 385, 388.
 Mary, queen of Scots, 324.
 Masham, Mrs., 394.
 Masaniello, 351.
 Mask, the iron, 397.
 Massena, marshal, 483.
 Massillon, bishop, 414.
 Massinger, 356.
 Matilda, queen, 212, 215.
 Mathews, Charles, 561.
 Matthew, St., 114.
 Matthew Paris, 237; Westminster, 261.
 Maupertius, 441.
 Maximin, 128, 136.
 Mazeppa, 399, 404.
 Mead, Dr., 412.
 Meal-tub plot, 366.
 Measles, 159.
 Mecænas, 108.
 Mecca, pilgrimage to, 161.
 Mechanics, 74, 90, 243.
 Mechanism, 237.
 Medea, 14.
 Media, 38, 48.
 Medicis, Lorenzo of, 297; Catherine, 322, 323; Mary, 337.
 Medusa, 12.
 Medusa, shipwreck of, 504.
 Megacles, 30.
 Melchisedek, 5.
 Melmoth, William, 545.
 Memnon I., 5, 58; II., 20.
 Menahem, 39.
 Menander, 83.
 Menzikof, prince, 413.
 Merchant adventurers, 184; Tailors, 328.
 Merino, curate, 589.
 Merlin, 146.
 Merovingian line, 165.
 Merton, battle of, 176.
 Merwan I., 162; II., 165.
 Messenians, 42, 44, 46, 71.
 Metals, 415.
 Metaastasio, 434.
 Metellus, 98.
 Metempsychosis, 57, 64.
 Methodists, 438, 543.
 Metonic cycle, 62.
 Mexico, 304, 586.
 Micajah, 31.
 Michael III., 176; Paleologus, 236.
 Microscope, 338.
 Middleton, Sir Hugh, 340.
 Middleton, Conyers, 411, 412.
 Miguel, Don, 586, 590.
 Milan, 154.
 Military asylum, 571.
 Milo, 55.
 Miltiades, 58.
 Milton, John, 374.
 Minnervus, 53.
 Mina, 590.
 Minden, battle of, 418, 445.
 Minors, 418.
 Minos I., 11; II., 16.
 Minotaur, 16.
 Mirabeau, 551.
 Mississippi, 392.
 Mitcham, 222, 321, 329, 339.
 Mithridates, 97.
 Moawiyah, 160, 161.
 Mohammed Ali, 492.
 Molière, 375.
 Molinos, 369.
 Monasteries, suppression of, 301.
 Money, origin of, 578.
 Monguls, 229, 259, 286, 431.
 Monk, general, 372.
 Monmouth, Geoffrey of, 222; duke of, 366, 382.
 Montague, lady, 440; Elisabeth, 547.
 Monte Notte, battle of, 511, 512.
 Montespan, Madame de, 396.
 Montesquieu, 441.
 Montesuma, 304.
 Montfort, Simon, 226, 230.
 Montmorenci, duc de, 337.
 Montserrat, marquis, 226.
 Moore, Sir John, 482.
 Moore, major, 329.

- Moors, 164, 165, 167, 168, 337.
 Moravians, 293.
 Moray, flood of, 582.
 Morden college, 392.
 More, Sir Thomas, 306.
 — Hannah, 594.
 Morland, George, 555.
 Morocco Saracens, 236.
 Mortmain, statute of, 245.
 Moschus, 94.
 Moscow, 219, 493, 517.
 Moses, 8, 409.
 Mozart, 557.
 Mulberry-tree, 342.
 Muley Mo'loch, 322.
 Municipal corporations, 298, 613.
 Murat, 495.
 Murillo, 374.
 Muses, 49.
 Museum, British, 444.
 Music, 158, 161, 196.
 Muskets, 308.
 Mushin, 143.
 Mutiny of Bounty, 456; of sailors, 458.
 Mutius Scævola, 59.
 Mycale, 60.
 Mycenæ, 13.
 Mysteries, 330.
 Mysticism, 251.

 Naaman, 33.
 Nabonassar, 42, 48.
 Naboth, 31.
 Nadab, 30.
 Nadir Shah, 431.
 Nævius, 47.
 Najura, battle of, 257, 260.
 Name's, Roman, 41.
 Nantes, edict of, 323, 371, 396.
 Napier, lord, 341.
 Napoleon. (See Buonaparte.)
 Napoleon code, 514.
 Narva, battle of, 389.
 National distress, 458; debt, 580; edu-
 cation, 569.
 Navarino, battle of, 578, 587.
 Navarre, 167.
 Navigation laws, 267.
 Navy, British, 272, 515.
 Nazarenes, 112.
 Nazarites, 112.
 Nebuchadnezzar, 48, 49, 51.
 Necker, 524.
 Nehemiah, 61.
 Nelson, Horatio, 512, 530.
 Nemean games, 16.
 Nennius, 172.
 Neomenis, 9.
 Neoptolemus, 19.
 Nepos, Cornelius, 108.
 Nero, 115.
 Nerva, 121.
 Nestorians, 143.
 Netherlands, kingdom of, 493.
 Neville's Cross, battle of, 234, 260.
 New river, 340.
 Newgate, 274.
 Newspapers, 356.
 Newton, John, 535, 546.
 — bishop, 544.
 — Sir Isaac, 589.
 Ney, marshal, 453, 526.
 Nice, council of, 137; Greek capital, 229.
 Nicene creed, 137.
 Nicephorus, 169; Phocas, 188.
 Nile, battle of the, 512, 530, 571.
 Nimrod, 2.
 Nineveh, 2, 37, 38, 48.
 Ninon de l'Enclos, 440.
 Ninus, 2.
 Noah, 1, 2.
 Nobody's club, 544.
 Nollekins, 600.
 None, 41.
 Nore, mutiny at the, 458.
 Norman architecture, 191.
 Normandy, 181.
 Normans, rule of, 201, 216.
 Norris, John, 403.
 North, lord, 524.
 North pole, expedition to, 581.
 Nova Scotia, 418, 442.
 Novation, 130.
 Numa Pompilius, 45.
 Numantine war, 94.
 Numerals, 185.
 Numitor, 40.
 Nuncio, papal, 164.

 Oates's plot, 366.
 Oberlin, 598.
 Occam, 252.
 Ochus, 74.
 Octennial act, 448.
 Odenatus, 129, 132, 134.
 Odo, 206.
 Odoacer, 146, 149.
 Oedipus, 14.
 Ecumenius, 193.
 Offa, 170.
 Olivarez, duc d', 351, 353.
 Olympiad, first, 39.
 Olympic games, 9.
 Omar I., 159; II., 163.
 Ommyade kaliphs, 161, 165, 167.
 Omri, 30.
 O. P. riots, 559.
 Opdam, admiral, 381.

- Opie, John, 555.
 Optimism, 404.
 Orange, house of, 322, 337, 424, 494.
 Ordeal, 201.
 Orestes, 22.
 Organs, 161.
 Origen, 129, 143.
 Orodes, 102.
 Orpheus, 15.
 Osborne, 194.
 Osaian, 127.
 Ostia, 47.
 Ostracism, 68.
 Ostrogoths, 142, 153.
 Othfrid, 175.
 Othman, kaliph, 159.
 Othniel, 11.
 Otho the Great, 189; Cæsar, 117.
 Ottoman empire, 243.
 Otway, 375.
 Oudenarde, battle of, 394.
 Ourique, battle of, 214.
 Ovation, 41.
 Ovid, 108.
 Oxford, earl of, 411.
 ——— university of, 178, 270, 297, 301,
 308, 328, 413.
 Pacomo, St., 138.
 Paine, Tom, 472, 525.
 Painting in oil, 270.
 Paisiello, 558.
 Paley, William, 542.
 Palm, the bookseller, 516.
 Palmyra, 27, 134.
 Pancreatic duct, 376.
 Pandora, 7.
 Panic of 1825, 577.
 Paoli, general, 424, 511, 525.
 Paper, cotton, 191; linen, 267, 328.
 Papirius Cursor, 82.
 Paraguay, 586.
 Parian chronicle, 85, 342.
 Paris, 19.
 ——— French capital, 149.
 Parish registers, 328.
 Park, Sir James Allan, 335, 445, 544.
 Park, Mungo, 534.
 Parliaments, 233, 277, 414, 448.
 ——— houses burned, 613.
 Parnell, 404.
 Parr, Samuel, 541.
 Parrhasius, 72.
 Parry, captain, 581.
 Parthia, 85, 102, 108.
 Pascal, 376.
 Paschasius, 174.
 Passover, 9, 46.
 Patagonia, 586.
 Patricians, 42.
 Patrick, St., 145.
 Patroclus, 19.
 Paul, St., 112, 116, 121.
 Paul I., Russia, 480.
 Paul, St., school, 308.
 ——— cathedral, 403, 405.
 Paulus Æmilius, 91.
 Pausanias, 61.
 Pavia, 168.
 Pawnbrokers, 284.
 Peace, prince of, 481.
 Pearce, bishop, 544.
 Pedro I., Portugal, 258; II., 389; Don
 Pedro, 577, 586.
 Peers by patent, 268.
 Pekah, 40.
 Pekahiah, 39.
 Pelagio, don, 164, 167.
 Pelagius, 146.
 Pelasgi, 3.
 Pelopidas, 71.
 Peloponnesian war, 62.
 Pelops, 14.
 Penates, 41.
 Penelope, 19.
 Peninsular war, 452, 482.
 Penn, William, 375.
 Pennant, Thomas, 545.
 Pentateuch, 10.
 Pentecost, 9.
 Pepin d'Heristal, 163, 165.
 ——— king, 165.
 Perceval, Spencer, 461.
 Percy, bishop, 544.
 Perdiccas, 83.
 Pergamus, 84, 94.
 Periander, 46, 50.
 Pericles, 62, 67, 68.
 Peripatetics, 75, 280.
 Perouse, La, 533.
 Perpetua, 126.
 Persecutions, ten Christian, 115, 120,
 122, 124, 126, 129, 130, 131, 134, 135.
 Persens, 12.
 Persia, ancient, 55, 78; middle empire,
 128, 152, 153, 159, 221; modern,
 302, 351, 431.
 Persius, 116.
 Perth, Fair Maid of, 266.
 Pertinax, 125.
 Peru, 222, 585.
 Petalism, 68.
 Peter, St., 116.
 Peter's-pence, 170.
 Peter the Cruel, 253, 256.
 ——— Great, 398, 404; III., 463.
 Petersburg, St., 405.
 Petition of right, 344.

- Petrarch, 260.
 Pewter, 414.
 Phalaris, 55.
 Pharamond, 143.
 Pharaoh Necho, 47, 48.
 Pharisees, 95.
 Phidias, 64.
 Phidon, 37.
 Philanthropic society, 567.
 Philetas, 86.
 Philip, emperor of Rome, 130; of Macedon, 75.
 — II., Spain, 318, 320, 323;
 III., 337; V., 395, 410, 411, 430.
 — II., France, 220, 226, 230;
 IV., 244; VI., 258.
 Philippi, battle of, 104.
 Philippica, 76.
 Philips, John, 402.
 Philistines, 3.
 Philo Judæus, 114.
 Philopœmen, 84, 89.
 Phocion, 77.
 Phœdrus, 104.
 Phœnicia, 3.
 Phraates, 102, 108.
 Phrenology, 569.
 Phul, 38.
 Phylacteries, 112.
 Physic gardens, 329.
 Physicians' college, 308.
 Piasius, 172.
 Pichegru, 477, 511.
 Picts and Scots, 142, 175.
 Pilpay, 10.
 Pindar, 64.
 Pindar, Peter, 538.
 Pins, 308.
 Pippins, 308.
 Piracy, 240.
 Pisa tower, 219.
 Pisistratus, 33, 52.
 Pitt, William, 449, 522.
 Pittacus, 50.
 Pius II., 282; VI., 491; VII., 492, 493, 517.
 Plagues, Egyptian, 9; other, 125, 164, 191, 209, 255, 269, 286, 294, 301, 311, 322, 335, 350, 363.
 Plantagenets, 266, 290.
 Plata, La, 585.
 Platina, 60, 61.
 Plato, 72, 75, 280.
 Plautus, 91.
 Plebeians, 42.
 Plenty, year of, 311.
 Pliny, elder, 119; younger, 122.
 Plutarch, 122.
 Pococke, Edw., 356.
 Poggio, 274.
 Poitiers, battle of, 255, 260; Diana of, 314.
 Poland, 172, 192, 282, 370, 395, 398, 431, 465, 480.
 Pole, cardinal, 315, 316.
 Pollio, 108.
 Polo, Marco, 244.
 Polybius, 93.
 Polycarp, 124.
 Polycrates, 58.
 Polyglots, 129.
 Polyguotus, 64.
 Polynices, 16.
 Pompadour, Madame, 432.
 Pompeii, 119, 508.
 Pompey, 98, 99, 102, 103.
 Pontus, 59.
 Poor-laws, 321, 613.
 Pope, first, 155, 163, 273, 478, 491.
 — Alexander, 401.
 Porcelain, 561.
 Porlier, 589.
 Porphyry, 136.
 Porsenna, 59.
 Porson, Richard, 541.
 Porteous riot, 418.
 Porteus, bishop, 547.
 Portsmouth, 151.
 Porte, the, 243.
 Porter, 414.
 Portugal, 96, 214, 258, 267, 282, 523, 551, 369, 389, 431, 482, 485, 577, 586, 590; succession war, 577, 586.
 Porus, 80.
 Post horses, 290; penny, 380.
 Potter, Paul, 374.
 Poussin, 354.
 Powell, professor, 553.
 Prætors, 41.
 Pragmatic sanction, 237, 397, 416, 429.
 Prayer-book, common, 312.
 Praxiteles, 83.
 Presbyterians, 319, 387.
 Preston, battle of, 407.
 Pretender, old, 381, 407; young, 417, 419.
 Priam, 18.
 Priestley, Joseph, 545.
 Priests, Jewish, 112.
 Prince, John, 412.
 Prince, John, 445.
 Pringle, Sir John, 548.
 Printing, 282, 340.
 Prior, Matthew, 404.
 Priscian, 152.
 Probus, 134.
 Proclus, 150.
 Projectiles, 339.
 Prometheus, 7.

- Propertius, 108.
 Proselytes of the covenant and gate, 112.
 Protestants, 302.
 Provençals, 225.
 Prussia, 183, 219, 368, 389, 433.
 Psammeticus, 46.
 Ptolemy Lagus, 81, 82; Philadelphus, 83; Evergetes, 86; Philopater, 88; Epiphanes, 90; Philometer, 91; Physcon, 94; Lathyrus, 95; Alexander, 98; Auletes, 100; Dionysius, 102; Cleopatra, 104.
 Ptolemy, 123.
 Puffendorf, 376.
 Punic wars, 85, 88, 92.
 Purcell, 390.
 Puritans, 130, 319.
 Pylades, 22.
 Pyramids, the, 6.
 Pyrometer, 433.
 Pyrrhonists, 83.
 Pyrrhus, 85.
 Pythagoras, 57.
 Pythian games, 14.
 Pythias, 73.
 Quæstors, 50.
 Quakers, 368.
 Quartes, Francis, 354.
 Quatre Bras, battle of, 494.
 Quebec, battle of, 418, 445.
 Quentin, St., battle of, 315.
 Quietists, 369.
 Quintilian, 120, 122.
 Quirinus, 43.
 Quiroga, 589.
 Rabelais, 307.
 Racine, 375.
 Racing, English, 609.
 Radcliffe, Dr., 413; Anne, 545.
 Rafaele, D'Urbino, 306.
 Ragotski, 396.
 Railroads, 442.
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, 321, 330, 322, 334, 339.
 Ramillies, battle of, 323.
 Ravenna, exarchate of, 153, 165.
 Ray, John, 402.
 Realists, 252.
 Reaumur, 437.
 Reform bill, 612.
 Reform, radical, 460.
 Reformation, 259, 300, 309, 325.
 Regency, English, 453, 461.
 Regiomontanus, 286.
 Rehoboam, 28.
 Reichstadt, duke of, king of Rome, 487, 517.
 Reid, Dr. Thomas, 547.
 Religions of the world, 625.
 Rembrandt, 374.
 Repton, Humphrey, 557.
 Restoration, 365.
 Revolution, English, 388; French, 432, 449, 469; American, 448.
 Reynolds, Sir Joshua, 554.
 Rhadamanthus, 17.
 Rhodes, 250.
 Ricimer, 146.
 Richard I., 220, 223; II., 264, 265; III., 274, 289.
 Richardson, 436.
 Richelieu, 337, 353.
 Ridley, bishop, 314.
 Riego, 589.
 Rienzi, 257.
 Rights, bill of, 388; petition of, 344.
 Robbers, noble, 210, 225, 234.
 Robert III., Scotland, 265, 269.
 Robertson, William, 542.
 Robespierre, 473, 476.
 Rochelle, siege of, 337.
 Rochester, earl of, 373.
 Roderick, 164.
 Rodney's victory, 469.
 Rodolph, of Hapsburg, 278.
 Rogers prebendary, 313.
 Roland the brave, 168, 170.
 Rollin, 436.
 Rollo, 181.
 Romanov, house of, 336.
 Romans quit Britain, 143.
 Rome, 40, 45, 47, 71, 92, 141, 145, 146, 478.
 Romilly, Sir Samuel, 525.
 Romney, George, 555.
 Romulus, 42.
 Roncesvalles, battle of, 168.
 Rooke, Sir George, 393, 397.
 Rosamond, the fair, 217.
 Rosbach, battle of, 445.
 Roscius, 99.
 Roses, 308; wars of, 277, 290.
 Rosicrucians, 256.
 Rostrum, 41.
 Roubilliac, 441.
 Roundheads, 336.
 Round towers of Ireland, 150.
 Rousseau, Jean Jacques, 550.
 Rowe, Nicholas, 401.
 Rowers, royal, 188.
 Rowley's poems, 537.
 Royal society, 380.
 Rubens, 354.
 Rumford, count, 554.
 Runnimede, 228, 229.
 Rupert, prince, 353.

- Ruric, 175.
 Russell, lord, 366.
 Russia, 175, 185, 219, 336, 398, 404,
 410, 424, 463, 480, 487.
 ——— company, 317.
 Ruth, 20.
 Ruthven, Raid of, 331.
 Ruydael, 374.
 Rye-house plot, 366.
 Rysbrack, 441.
 Saadi, 221.
 Sabellians, 130.
 Sabines, 42, 46, 47.
 Sacheverell, Dr., 403.
 Sackville, lord George, 445.
 Sacred wars, 62, 74, 84.
 Sad, 159, 160.
 Sadducees, 88.
 Safety-lamp, 570.
 Saladin, 219, 220, 221, 235.
 Salamanca, battle of, 484.
 Salamè, M., 499.
 Salian priests, 45.
 Salique law, 143.
 Sallust, 105.
 Salvator Rosa, 374.
 Samaria built, 30.
 Samaritans, 44.
 Samson, 22.
 Samuel, 23.
 San Marino, 624.
 Sanconiaton, 18.
 Sandfloods, 464.
 Sandys, George, 356.
 Sandwich isles, king and queen of, 582.
 Sanhedrim, 112.
 Sans-culottes, 475.
 Sapor, 129, 131, 132, 133.
 Sappho, 48.
 Saracens, 158, 184, 236.
 Saragossa, maid of, 482.
 Sarbonne college, 235.
 Sardanapalus, 38.
 Sardinia, 219, 410.
 Sardinia, 59.
 Saturnalia, 46.
 Saul, 24.
 Saunderson, Nicholas, 411.
 Savage, Richard, 436.
 Savings' banks, 571.
 Sawtre, William, 269.
 Saxons, England under, 201.
 Scales, 37.
 Scamander, 6.
 Scanderbeg, 282.
 Scheldt, navigation of, 478.
 Schiller, 538.
 Scipio, Æmilianus, 92, 94; Asiaticus, 90.
 Scotch episcopal church, 335, 456.
 Scotland, 142, 184, 199, 215, 239, 240,
 248, 265, 269, 278, 291, 296, 299,
 303, 324, 387, 394.
 Scott, Sir Walter, 591.
 Scotus Duns, 252.
 Scribes, 106.
 Scylla, 20.
 Scythians, 49.
 Seamen, impressment of, 262.
 Sebastian, king of Portugal, 322.
 Secker, archbishop, 438.
 Secular games, 107.
 Sedans, 342.
 Sejanus, 109, 112.
 Selden, 356.
 Seleucus, 82.
 Selkirk, Alexander, 401.
 Semiramis, 2.
 Seneca, 116.
 Sennacherib, 44.
 Septimius Severus, 125.
 Septuagint, 83, 127.
 Seringapatam, fall of, 525, 571.
 Servile war, 94.
 Servius Tullius, 51.
 Sesostris, 6.
 Sessa, 29.
 Seven against Thebes, 16.
 Seven years' war, 429.
 Severus, 136.
 Seymour, duke of Somerset, 309.
 Shaftesbury, earl of, 373, 390.
 Shakspeare, 325.
 Shalmaneser, 43, 44.
 Shamgar, 13.
 Sharpe, archbishop, 367.
 Sharpe, the engraver, 462.
 Shenstone, William, 436.
 Sheridan, 523.
 Sherlock, bishop, 436.
 Ship-money, 351.
 Shishak, 29.
 Shore, Jane, 286, 288.
 Shovel, Sir Cloudesley, 392.
 Shrewsbury, battle of, 269.
 Shuter, Edward, 560.
 Sicilian vespers, 242.
 Sicilies, kingdom of, 199, 210, 235, 242,
 351, 432, 495.
 Sicyon, 3.
 Side-saddles, 267.
 Sidney, Sir Philip, 325.
 Signs of houses, 286.
 Silk-throwing, 414.
 Silvester II., pope, 193.
 Simeon Stylites, 147.
 Simnel, Lambert, 293.
 Simonides, 56.

- Simoom, 464.
 Simplicius, 153.
 Sisera, 13.
 Sisyphus, 12.
 Slave-trade, 504, 568, 613.
 Sloane, Sir Hans, 413.
 Smallpox, 159, 414, 567.
 Smith, Adam, 541.
 — Elizabeth, 547 ; Charlotte, 547.
 Smollett, Dr., 438.
 Smyrna, 384.
 Snyders, 374.
 So, 43, 44.
 Sobieski, John, king of Poland, 370.
 Social war, 88, 96.
 Socinians, 340.
 Sock, 57.
 Socrates, 63.
 Soldier, origin of, 230.
 Soliman, 163 ; the magnificent, 311.
 Solomon, 26.
 Solon, 47, 52.
 Solway Moss, 455.
 Somers, John lord, 410.
 Somerville, William, 435.
 Sophocles, 64.
 Sorel, Agnes, 279.
 Sosigenes, 103.
 Soult, marshal, 483, 516.
 South, Robert, 402.
 South-sea company, 405.
 South-sea bubble, 408.
 Southcott imposture, 461.
 Southwark-bridge, 571.
 Spafelds riots, 462.
 Spain, 89, 95, 142, 164, 167, 171, 184, 196, 235, 244, 253, 256, 257, 260, 286, 295, 296, 297, 318, 320, 323, 339, 454, 481, 482, 589, 590, 614.
 Spanish armada, 339 ; succession war, 590, 614.
 Sparta, 24, 35, 42, 44, 46, 73, 87.
 Spartacus, 98.
 Spectacles, 247.
 Speed, 356.
 Spenser, Edmund, 325.
 Sphinx, 14.
 Spinola, 337.
 Spinster, 247.
 Spoons, 247.
 Spurs, battle of, 299.
 Stage-coaches, 442.
 Standing armies, 294.
 Stanislaus, king of Poland, 398, 431, 432.
 Star-chamber, 297.
 Starch, 341.
 Steam-coaches, 442, 618 ; engines, 551, 561 ; boats, 569.
 Steel, 414.
 Steel engraving, 568.
 Steele, Sir Richard, 404.
 Stephen, St., 112 ; chapel, 263.
 Stephen, king, 212, 216.
 Stereotype-printing, 415.
 Sterling money, 229.
 Sterne, Lawrence, 541.
 Stevens, William, 335, 544.
 Stillfleet, bishop, 390.
 Stock-exchange, 580.
 Stockings, woven, 328.
 Stoics, 84.
 Stonehenge, 146, 147.
 Storm, great, 394.
 Stove, rumfordized, 554.
 Stow, 340.
 Stowell, lord, 593.
 Strabo, 109.
 Strafford, earl of, 345, 356.
 Stralaund, siege of, 401, 409.
 Strongbow, earl of Strigul, 222.
 Struensee, count, 465.
 Stuart family, 255, 336, 405, 524.
 Stukeley, Dr., 441.
 Style, new, 328, 444.
 Succession wars, Spain, 395, 614 ; Portugal, 586.
 Suetonius, 123.
 Sully, duc de, 327.
 Sundial, 82.
 Surnames, 204.
 Sweating sickness, 294, 301.
 Sweden, 304, 337, 352, 353, 398, 478, 488, 508.
 Swedenborg, baron, 550.
 Sweyn, 190.
 Swift, Dean, 402.
 Swiss guards, massacre of, 471.
 Swithin, St., 174.
 Switzerland, 249, 478.
 Sydenham, Dr., 377.
 Sydney, Algernon, 367.
 Sylla, 97.
 Syracuse, 43, 82.
 Syria, 90, 98.
 Tabernacles, feast of, 9.
 Tacitus, 122, 134.
 Tadmor, 27, 134.
 Talavera, battle of, 483.
 Talleyrand, 482, 515, 603.
 Talmud, 121.
 Tamerlane, 260, 269.
 Tantalus, 14.
 Tarentum, 44.
 Tarentine war, 84.
 Targums, 121.
 Tarquinius Priscus, 47 ; Superbus, 52, 57.

- Tartary, kham of, 625.
 Tasso, 326.
 Taylor, bishop, 251, 377.
 — the water poet, 319.
 Tea, 340, 380.
 Tekeli, count, 369.
 Telegraph, 571.
 Telemachus, 19.
 Telescope, 328, 338.
 Tell, William, 249.
 Temperance societies, 607.
 Templars, 210, 250.
 Temple, Sir William, 373.
 Teniers, 374.
 Terence, 93.
 Term times, 204.
 Terminalia, 135.
 Terpander, 46.
 Tertullian, 126.
 Test act, 368.
 Teutones, 226.
 Teutonic knights, *ib.*
 Thales, 51.
 Thames dry, 209.
 Thanes, 201.
 Thebes, 8, 16, 71; Egyptian, 97.
 Theocritus, 43, 86.
 Theodore, king of Corsica, 424.
 Theodoric, 142.
 Theodosius the Great, 140; *II.*, 142;
 III., 164.
 Theophrastus, 77.
 Theophylact, 158, 199.
 Theresa, St., 307.
 Thermometer, 342, 548.
 Thermopylæ, 60.
 Thespis, 56.
 Thibet, 624.
 Thirty tyrants, 62, 70.
 Thomas, St., hospital, 312.
 Thomson, James, 21, 434.
 Thornhill, Sir James, 441.
 Thornton, John, 462.
 Thrasybulus, 43, 71.
 Thucydides, 73.
 Thurlow, lord, 262.
 Thurtell, execution of, 581.
 Tiberius, 109.
 Tibullus, 108.
 Tiglath-pileser, 40, 43.
 Tigranes, 98.
 Tiles, 238.
 Tillotson, archbishop, 384.
 Tilist treaty, 487, 516.
 Time calculated by Christian era, 150.
 Timoleon, 43.
 Timotheus, 73.
 Timour the Tartar, 260, 269.
 Tippoo Saib, 450, 525.
 Tithes, 5, 9, 173.
 Titian, 326.
 Titles, royal, 287.
 Titus, 118.
 Tobacco, 328.
 Togrul-Bek, 199.
 Tola, 17.
 Tories, 336.
 Totila, 152, 153.
 Toulon, siege of, 479, 511.
 Toulouse, battle of, 453, 485.
 Tours, battle of, 165.
 Tower of London, 204.
 Trafalgar, battle of, 451, 531, 572.
 Tragedy, 56.
 Trajan, 121.
 Transtamare, Enriquez de, 253, 256.
 Transubstantiation, 174, 231.
 Trapezuntius, 287.
 Trebisonde, 59.
 Trent, council of, 308.
 Tribunes, 58.
 Trimmer, Sarah, 547.
 Triptolemus, 13.
 Trojans in Italy, 21; modern, 301.
 Troubadours, 225.
 Troy, 6, 17.
 Troyes treaty, 273.
 Tudor, Sir Owen, 271.
 — family, 329.
 Tulips, 328.
 Tullia, 52.
 Tullus Hostilius, 45.
 Turenne, 372.
 Turkey company, 328.
 Turks, 199, 243, 259, 260, 269, 278, 302.
 311.
 Turnips, 308.
 Turnpikes, 263.
 Turnus, 21.
 Tyler, Wat, 264, 265.
 Tyre, 3, 27.
 Tyrtæus, 46.
 Tyrolese insurrection, 490.
 Tyrrel, Sir Walter, 206.
 Ugolino, 219, 243.
 Ulm, capitulation of, 515.
 Ulysses, 19, 20, 45, 495, 622.
 Umbrellas, 561.
 Union, Scottish, 394.
 Urbanists, 266.
 Usher, archbishop, 356.
 Utrecht, treaty of, 397.
 Uziah, 38.
 Valdemar, 219.
 Valens, 139.
 Valentinian I., 139; *II.*, 144.

- ne, 267.
 n, 131.
 t, 144, 152.
 109.
 ustavus, 304.
 . 284.
 1.
 145, 154, 176, 182, 219, 226,
 237, 282, 296, 480.
 glasses, 247.
 de Medicis, 235.
 se, Paul, 326.
 ian, 117.
 , 45.
 126.
 a, queen, 618.
 t, 250.
 s, duke of Buckingham, 332.
 108; Polydore, 307.
 a, 61; in America, 329.
 ius, 61.
 ius, 95.
 hs, 142, 164.
 as, 117.
 ius, 109.
 a, battle of, 484.
 , 263.
 ern, 144, 145, 546.
 e, 143.

 abees, 625.
 field, battle of, 276.
 nses, 219, 222.
 b, Peter, 222.
 i, 151, 155, 173, 181, 240.
 - prince of, 263.
 of China, 89; British, 123, 126.
 ce, Sir William, 239.
 r, Edmund, 374.
 agford, treaty of, 216.
 ole, Sir Robert, 408, 414, 416;
 ace, 544.
 ngham, Thomas, 274.
 n, Isaac, 379.
 ec, Perkin, 293.
 urton, bishop, 543.
 ants, general, 447.
 rick, the king-maker, 276, 294.
 on, Thomas, 537; Dr., 537.
 ington, George, 449, 533.
 hes, 328.
 rclock, 92.
 rloo, battle of, 453, 520, 572.
 — bridge, 570.
 raspouts, 464.
 on, bishop, 545.
 , John, 551, 561.

 Watts, Isaac, 437.
 Weare, murder of, 580.
 Weber, 595.
 Wedgwood, 561.
 Wednesday, 142.
 Wellington, duke of, 452, 482, 517.
 Wenceslaus, 269.
 Werner, 553.
 Wesley, John, 543.
 West, Benjamin, 555.
 Western Isles, 236.
 Westminster hall, 206, 267; abbey,
 238; school, 328; bridge, 443.
 Wetherell, Sir Charles, 462, 612.
 Whale-fishery, 328.
 Wheat, high price of, 225.
 Whigs, 336.
 Whiston, William, 412.
 White, Henry Kirke, 538.
 Whiteboy riots, 582.
 Whitefield, George, 438.
 Whitehall, 308; preacherships, 415.
 Whitelocke, general, 452.
 Whittington, 274.
 Wickliffe, 259, 260.
 Wieland, 539.
 Wilberforce, William, 526, 568.
 Wilkes, John, 447, 454.
 Wilkins, bishop, 376.
 William of Malmesbury, 215; of Wyke-
 ham, 270.
 William I., England, 182, 197, 200, 202;
 II., 206; III., 382, 383, 385, 396,
 413; IV., 609.
 William I., Holland, 493.
 Wilson, Richard, 556; bishop, 391.
 Winchester book, 179; college, 270.
 Windsor castle, 262.
 Wine a medicine, 247.
 Witchcraft, 367.
 Wittenagmote, 179, 202.
 Wolcot, Dr. 538.
 Wolfe, general, 418, 434.
 Wolsey, cardinal, 299, 305.
 Wolves, English, 188.
 Wonders, seven, 87.
 Wood engraving, 566.
 Wool, the English staple, 247.
 Woolsack, 247.
 Wotton, Sir Henry, 356.
 Wouvermans, 374.
 Wrecks, law of, 218.
 Wren, Sir Christopher, 403.

 Xenophanes, 53.
 Xenophon, 70, 71.
 Xerxes, 60.
 Ximenes, 297, 302.

- | | |
|---|--|
| Year, sabbatical, 112 ; of jubilee, 112 ; | Zedekiah, 49. |
| of confusion, 103. | Zeno the stoic, 84 ; the emperor, 149. |
| Yemid I., 162 ; II., 163. | Zenobia, 132, 133, 134. |
| Yezdegird III., 159. | Zeuxis, 72. |
| Yoke, Roman, 41. | Ziani, doge, 220. |
| York family, 290. | Zimmermann, 549. |
| York, cardinal, 524. | Zinzendorf, 437. |
| York, duke of, trial, 459 ; death, 578. | Zisca, John, 273. |
| York-town, battle of, 571. | Zoe, 199. |
| Young, Dr. Edward, 434. | Zoilus, 86. |
| | Zoroaster, 58, 59. |
| Zachariah, 39. | Zuinglius, 307. |

MNEMONIC TABLETS

OF

USEFUL MATTERS OF HISTORY, &c.

LITERAL DATING TABLE.

a	e	i	o	u	au	oi	ei	ou	y
l	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
b	d	t	f	l	s	p	k	n	z

Sacred History.

- 10 *Antediluvian Patriarchs.* Ad. Seth.
E. Cain, Ma. Ja. En. Meth. La.
No. page 1
- 12 *Tribes of Israel.* Reu. Sim. Le.
Ju. Is. Zeb. Jo. Ben. Gad. Asb. Da.
Naph. 9
- 10 *Plagues of Moses.* Blo. Frog.
Li. Fli. Cat. Boil. Light. Lo. Dark.
Death. 9
- 5 *False Gods of Canaan.* Ba. As. Cha.
Mo. Da. 10
- 4 *Great Prophets.* I. Jer. E. Dan. 42
- 12 *Minor Prophets.* Ho. Jo. A. O.
Jon. Mi. Na. Ha. Zeph. Hag. Zech.
Mal. Appendix
- 10 *Miracles of Elisha.* Salt. Bear.
Drought. Oil. Shu. Lep. Ge. Axe.
Blind. Plen. 33
- 12 *Apostles.* Pet. And. Jeb. John, Phil.
Bar. Thom. Mat. Jalph. Leb. Si.
Ju. 112
- 4 *Evangelists.* Mat. Mar. Lu. John Ap.
Per. Sar. La. Phil. 112
- 7 *Churches of Asia.* Eph. Smyr. Thy.
Per. Sar. La. Phil. 112
- 4 *Hills of Jerusalem.* Mo. Si. O. Cal. 112
- 7 *Classes of our Lord's Miracles.* Change,
Fed. Sense. Heal. Storm. Dev.
Dead 111
- Jewish Memoranda* 9, 112
- Books of the Bible,* 80. Old Testament,
39; Gen. Ex. Le. Nu. Deu; Jq. Ju. Ru.
Sam. Kings, Chron. Es. Ne. Est; Job,
Psal. Prov. Ex. Song; I. Jer. Lam. Ez.
Dan; Ho. Jo. A. O. Jon. Mi. Na. Ha.
Zeph. Hag. Zech. Mal.—Apocrypha,
14; Ea. Jo. Ju. Est. Wis. Ecc. Bu.
Three. Su. Bel. Man. Mac.—New Testa-
ment, 27; Mat. Mark. Luke, John;
Acts, Ro. Cor. Gal. Eph. Phil. Co.
Thess. Tim. Ti. Phi. He. Ja. Pe. John,
Jude, Rev. Appendix
- Classical History.**
- 12 *Dii Magni.* Ju. Ne. Vul. Mar. Mer.
A. Jun. Mi. Ves. Ce. Ve. Di. 11

- 20 *Dii Minores.* Sa. Ja. Plu. Plus. Bac.
Cy. Au. As. Cir. Bel. Hy. He. Nem.
1. The. Hym. Æ. Mor. Co. Mo. p. 11
- 4 *Grecian Games.* Ol. Ist. Pyth. Ne. 9
- 12 *Labours of Hercules.* Li. Hy. Sta. Bo.
Aug. Stym. Bu. Di. Hip. Ge. Hesp.
Cerb. 16
- 7 *Kings of Rome.* Rom. Nu. Tul. An.
Tar. Ser. Tar. 40
- 12 *Cæsars.* Ju. Au. Ti. Ca. Clau. Ne.
Gal. O. Vi. Ves. Ti. Do. Appendix
- 7 *Hills of Rome.* Pa. Cap. Av. Es. Qui.
Vi. Cæ. 40.
- 7 *Wise Men of Greece.* Chi. Per. Pit.
Tha. So. Bi. Cle. 53
- 7 *Wonders of the World.* Co. Ma. Pa.
Pyr. Sta. Tem. Wall 87
- 12 *Learned at one period in Greece.* So.
De. Hip. Her. Eu. Ar. Soph. Æsc.
Pin. Em. Phid. Pol. 62
- 12 *Learned in Augustan Age.* Liv. Phæ.
Vir. Hor. Prop. Ne. Ov. Tib. Cat.
Cel. Me. Pol. 108
- 5 *Orders of Grecian Architecture.* Tus.
Dor. I. Cor. Com. 575
- 9 *Muses.* Er. Tha. Cli. Eu. Call. Pol.
U. Mel. Ter. 49
- 3 *Graces.* Ag. Eu. Tha. 49
- 3 *Fates.* Clo. Lac. At. ib.
- 3 *Furies.* Ti. Meg. Al. ib.
- Classical Memoranda.* Pages 14, 41, 45,
47, 52, 59, 101, 135.
- 4 *Noted Epochs.* Ol. Ro. Chris. He. Ap.

General History.

- 4 *Universal Monarchies.* As. Per. Gre.
Ro. 368
- 5 *Religions of the World.* Chris. Jew.
Ma. Brab. Bud. 625.
- 8 *Great Conquerors.* Cy. Al. At. Ma. Char.
Jen. Tam. Na. Buc. Appendix
- 6 *Theoria of the Universe.* Py. Ep. Ptol.
Co. Car. New Appendix
- 12 *Ptolemies.* La. Del. Ev. Pa. Ep.
Me. Physa. Lath. Al. Au. Di.
Cle. Chronolog. Index

- 4 *False Gods of Egypt.* Bel. A. I. page 10
 4 *Docti.* A. Bo. Hales, Dun. 237, 252
 24 *Great Philosophers of the World.* Mo. Pyth. De. So. Pla. Ar. Ze. Ep. Arc. Sen. Ep. Ptol.—Co. Kep. Ba. Gal. De. Locke, Lei. New. Frank. Eu. Da. Place Appendix
 4 *Orders of Architecture of the Middle Ages.* Goth. Sax. Nor. Tu. Appendix
 10 *Catholic Religious Orders.* Ben. John. Cart. Cis. Tem. Carm. Ber. Fran. Cel. Do. Appendix
 4 *Orders of Friars.* Au. Fran. Do. Car. 141
 3 *Hours of French Kings.* Me. Car. Ca. 143
 7 *Cardinal Virtues.* Fa. Ho. Char. Pru. Jus. For. Tem. 237
 7 *Metals.* Go. Sil. Pla. Cop. I. Lead, Tin 415
- 8 *East.* Nor. Hert. Ess. Suff. Cam. Lin. Mid. Hunt.
 4 *South.* Wilt. Ham. Berk. Dor.
 3 *South West.* Some. Dev. Corn.
 3 *South East.* Sur. K+n. Sus. page 177
- WELSH COUNTIES.—Twelve.
 6 *North.* Flint. Caern. Meri. Angle. Den. Mont.
 6 *South.* Card. Breck. Caer. Pem. Rad. Glam. 241
- SCOTTISH COUNTIES.—Thirty-three.
 10 *North.* Ork. Caith. Ross. Nair. Cro. In. Sut. Ab. Mur. Ban.
 9 *Middle.* An. Ar. Per. Mear. Dumb. Stir. Clack. Kin. Fife.
 14 *South.* Pee. Lin. Kirk. Sel. Dum. Ren. Bur. Lan. Ber. Rox. Ed. Had. Ayr. Wig. Appendix
- IRISH COUNTIES.—Thirty-two.
 9 *North.* (Ulster,) Lon. Don. Mon. Ty. An. Arm. Fer. Down. Cavan.
 5 *West.* (Connaught,) Ma. Ro. Lei. Sh. Gal.
 12 *East.* (Leinster,) King. Dub. Louth. Queen. Car. Long. Wex. Wick. Kill. East. Kill. West.
 6 *South.* (Munster,) Ker. Tip. Cork. Clare. Lime. Water. 218
 6 *Cinque Ports.* Do. Hast. Sand. Rom. Hi. Rye. Win. Sea. 229
 7 *Protesting Bishops.* San. Lloy. Tur. Kenn. Lake. White. Tre. 383
 5 *English Orders.* Gur. This. Pat. Bath. S. Appendix
 Members of the British Parliament 234
 Chief British Colonies. Ind. Can. Bruu. Sco. Cape. Wales. Van. Ceyl. Mau. Hel. New. Mal. Gib. Appendix
 7 *Kingdoms of the Heptarchy.* Ken. Sus. Wes. Es. Nor. An. Mer. 145
 4 *Great Courts of Law.* Chan. Ben. Plea. Ex. 204
 4 *Inns of Court.* In. Mid. Lin. Gray. 252
 8 *Judicial Circuits.* Home. Ox. Mid. Nor. North. West. Nwa. Swa. 218

English History.

- MONARCHS SINCE THE CONQUEST.—Thirty-five. Nor. Plan. Lan. York, Tu. Stu. Brun.
Norman Line. 5. Will.-by-aw. Will.-by-koi. Hen.-ab-ty. Ma.-ab-it. Ste.-ab-li.
Plantagenet. 8. Hen.-ab-lo. Rich.-ab-kou. John.-ab-nou. Hen.-ad-bau. Ed.-ad-oid. Ed.-at-doi. Rich.-at-poi.
Lancaster. 3. Hen.-bi-nou. Hen.-bout. Hen.-bode.
York. 3. Ed.-bo-pa. Ed.-bo-ki. Rich.-bo-ki.
Tudor. 5. Hen.-af-ku. Hen.-alsou. Ed.-al-foi. Ma.-butt. El.-bulk.
Stuart. 6. Ja.-us-ti. Chr.-as-du. Char.-as-on. Ja.-us-ku. Will. and Ma.-as-kou. Ann.-boi-se.
Brunswick. 6. Geor.-ap-bo. Geor.-ap-doi. Geor.-ap-sy. Geor.-ak-dy. Will.-ak-is. Vic.-ak-toi. Chronolog. Index

ENGLISH COUNTIES.—Forty.

- 6 *North.* Cum. York, Lan. Dur. North. West.
 4 *Near Wales.* Here. Ches. Mon. Shrop.
 12 *Middle.* Staff. Leic. War. Der. Glouc. Not. Rut. Worc. Ox. Buck. Nor. Bed.

Although that is the best memory which requires no adventitious help, mnemonic tables may be occasionally used with manifest advantage. Where precision and an exact order in detail are demanded, such aids are found to increase, rather than diminish, the retentive powers of the faculty of remembrance, if judiciously used. The youthful reader will readily see how he may apply the *literal date* to the first syllable of any word selected to express a person or an event, so as to impress both date and event upon his memory; but he must at the same time bear in mind, that mere dates and events, without they induce him to think and reason and inquire, are but the shells and husks of learning, and, as such, utterly valueless.

APPENDIX.

BOOKS OF THE BIBLE.

OLD TESTAMENT, 39: *Pentateuch*, Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, Deuteronomy. *Historical*, Joshua, Judges, Ruth, 2 Samuel, 2 Kings, 2 Chronicles, Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther. *Poetical*, Job, Psalms, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Song of Solomon. 4 *Great Prophets*, Isaiah, Jeremiah, (Lamentations,) Ezekiel, Daniel. 12 *Minor Prophets*, Hosea, Joel, Amos, Obadiah, Jonah, Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, Zephaniah, Haggai, Zechariah, Malachi.

APOCRYPHA, 14: 2 Esdras, Tobit, Judith, 1 the rest of Esther, Wisdom of Solomon, Ecclesiasticus, Baruch, The Song of the Three Children, The Story of Susanna, The idol Bel and the Dragon, The prayer of Manasses, 2 Maccabees.

NEW TESTAMENT, 27: *Gospels*, St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, St. John. *Historical*, Acts of the Apostles. *St. Paul's Epistles*, Romans, 2 Corinthians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, Colossians, 2 Thessalonians, 2 Timothy, Titus, Philemon, Hebrews. *Epistles of other Apostles*, James, 2 Peter, 3 John, Jude. *Prophetic*, Revelation.

SCOTTISH COUNTIES—Thirty-three.

10 *Northern*.—Orkney, Caithness, Ross, Nairne, Cromartie, Inverness, Sutherland, Aberdeen, Murray (or Moray or Elgin), Banff.

9 *Middle*.—Angus, Argyle, Perth, Mearne (or Kincardine), Dumbarton, Stirling, Clackmannan, Kinross, Fife.

14 *Southern*.—Peebles, Linlithgow, Kirkcudbright, Selkirk, Dumfries, Renfrew, Bute, Lanark, Berwick, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, Haddington, Ayr, Wigtown.

THE TWELVE CÆSARS.

Julius, Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Nero, Galba, Otho, Vitellius, Vespasian, Titus, Domitian.

THE CHIEF BRITISH COLONIES.

East and West Indies, The Canadas, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia; The Cape of Good Hope; New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land; Islands of Ceylon, Mauritius, St. Helena, Newfoundland, and Malta; Gibraltar.

NINE GREAT CONQUERORS.

Cyrus, Alexander, Attila Mahomet, Charlemagne, Jenghiz Khan, Tamerlane or Timour the Tartar, Nadir Shah or Kouli Khan, Napoleon Buonaparte.

SIX THEORIES OF THE UNIVERSE.

Pythagorean, Epicurean or Atomic, Ptolemaic, Copernican, Cartesian, Newtonian.

TWENTY GREAT PHILOSOPHERS.

10 *Ancient*: Moses (exclusively of his divine office), Pythagoras, Democritus, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, Epicurus, Archimedes, Seneca, Epictetus, Ptolemy. 10 *Modern*: Copernicus, Kepler, lord Bacon, Galileo, Descartes, Locke, Leibnitz, Newton, Franklin, Euler, Davy, Laplace.

FOUR LATER ARCHITECTURAL ORDERS.

Gothic, 167; Saxon; Norman, 191; Tudor.

TEN CATHOLIC RELIGIOUS ORDERS.

St. Benedict, 153; St. John, 199; Carthusians, 205; Cistercians, 207; Templars, 210; Carmelites, 215; St. Bernard, 215; Franciscans, 230; Celestines, 235; Dominicans, 234.

FIVE ENGLISH ORDERS.

Garter, 263; Bath, 270; S. S., 270; Thistle, James II., 1687; St. Patrick, George III., 1783.

FOUR NOTED EPOCHS.

First Olympiad *pois*; Foundation of Rome *oili*. Birth of our Lord. Hegira *see*.

OMITTED IN REIGN OF JAMES I.

John Kepler, a celebrated German astronomer and mathematician, born in the Wurttemberg territory, 1571. He sometime assisted Tycho Brahe, who was prosecuting his physical researches at Prague, under the patronage of the emperor Rodolph; and he completed that philosopher's '*Rodolphine Tables*.' Kepler's fame, however, rests upon his discovery of the true figure of the orbits of the planets of our system. Those orbits he proved to be ellipses; and he showed that the planets describe areas propor-

tioned to their periodic times of revolution, demonstrating that the proportion existing between the periodic times of any two planets is exactly the sesquiquate (ratio of *one half*) proportion of the mean distances of their orbits: in other words, the squares of the times are as the cubes of the mean distances. These discoveries, three in amount, are called Kepler's laws and the philosopher's joy when he had established them, was natural enough. fruits as they were of more than twenty years' laborious inquiry. Kepler's last days were imbibed by the opposition of the Catholic priesthood to the spread of his physical notions, and by the failure on the part of the emperor to pay his pension with regularity. He died, aged fifty-nine, 1630.

ERRATA.

p. 2 col. 2, for Confucius, read Buddha.

75 col. 2, for god's manes, read gods manes, i. e. dii manes.

THE END.





